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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the workshops presented in this notebook is to: (1) help educators learn about the needs of marginal learners (described as students, preschool through twelfth grade, whose academic performance may be less than that of their classmates or whose behavior may interfere with learning); (2) identify proven practices in both classroom and school-level intervention programs; and (3) begin planning improvement efforts based on local conditions. Each of six content modules is designed as a 3- to 4-hour focused workshop that can be presented individually or as part of a series. The six content modules cover the following topics: (1) identifying marginal learners; (2) motivating marginal learners; (3) adapting classroom practices to accommodate marginal learners; (4) assessing district policies and programs for marginal learners; (5) meeting the needs of marginal learners: a range of approaches; and (6) the role of school leaders in supporting programs for marginal learners. Each module contains the following components: the module description; training agenda for a focused workshop; trainer's instructions for conducting all activities; participant handouts; and camera-ready transparency masters. Modules 7 and 8 provide: information on promoting, planning, preparing, and evaluating marginal learner workshops; and a bibliography and collection of background readings for trainers. (LL)

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ED 392 796

Marginal Learners:
Identification, Prevention, and Intervention

An AEL School Excellence Workshop

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How to Use This Notebook

The numbers on Tabs #1 through #6 correspond to the numbers of the workshop's six modules developed for focused workshops designed to aid in establishing or improving programs for marginal learners.

Each of the tabbed sections #1–6 contains the following components:

- *Module description—green*
- *Training agenda for a focused, two– to four–hour workshop—green*
- *Trainer's instructions for conducting all activities—ivory*
- *Participant handouts—white*
- *Transparency copies (camera–ready transparency masters in the envelope in the back of the notebook)—blue*

Tabs #7 and #8 are primarily resources for the trainer. Tab #7 contains background information that can be provided to promote and publicize the workshop, including a one–page description, an executive summary, and objectives. Tab #7 also contains a Workshop Evaluation Form and a Presenter's Feedback Form. AEL will analyze data from ***Marginal Learners*** workshops if you send to us completed evaluations and the Presenter's Feedback Form.

Trainers should tailor a training program to the specific needs and interests of a particular audience, or use an agenda from Tabs #1–6 for a focused workshop on a single topic.

Tab #8 contains a bibliography and readings relating to marginal learners and programs of assistance. Trainers may use these for their own background information or as optional handouts or references.

Marginal Learners: Identification, Prevention, and Intervention

Executive Summary

Rationale

At-risk youth, students who fall through the cracks, learning disabled, underachievers—all are labels that have been used to describe students who are not succeeding academically or who are not behaving according to the standards and expectations of their teachers, families, or the school administration. These hard-to-reach and frequently hard-to-teach students can be found in every grade level, school and community. With a decline in the number of students being served by special education programs and a growing national trend toward providing service in least restrictive environments, the presence of at least one type of marginal learner in each classroom may become commonplace. Identifying and assisting these students and those not served by special services will be critical to their success as well as that of their classmates. Marginal learners are described herein as students, preschool through twelfth grade, whose academic performance may be less than their classmates' or whose behavior may interfere with learning.

As school faculties across the nation address both the declining home conditions of children and the increasing numbers of school dropouts, they give more attention to keeping students in school. This adds another type of marginal learner to the regular classroom: learners who have not identified with or who have openly retreated from or rebelled against the traditional range of teacher practices and organizational rules. These students may eventually be "pushed out" of the system.

In between are marginal learners who may be more difficult to identify: the *unnoticed, uninvolved*, the *sliding-by, coasting-along*, or the *dropout in the making*.

Unfortunately, few teachers have had adequate training in diagnosing the range of individual learning needs, modifying instructional strategies to accommodate them, or motivating marginal students. Often teachers lack strategies for assisting students in meeting their basic needs—survival, love and belonging, power, fun, and freedom—within school settings. Lesson design and communication strategies proven to be effective with marginal learners may not be included in the local professional development agenda. Only a handful of studies and reports attempt to define the causes of marginal learning and to identify the common elements of programs that have proven successful in connecting these students to schools.

Workshop Description

The AEL School Excellence Workshop, *Marginal Learners: Identification, Prevention, and Intervention,* helps educators to learn about the needs of marginal learners, to identify proven practices in both classroom and school-level intervention programs, and to begin planning improvement efforts based on local conditions.

Each of the six content modules is designed as a 3- to 4-hour focused workshop that can be presented individually or as part of a series sequenced from identifying marginal learners through examining and adapting school and district policies and practices to better serve these students.

Module 1 activities assist workshop participants in examining the sources of marginal learning, analyzing indicators of growing risk for children and youth, identifying characteristics of marginality, and exploring the warning signs for marginal learning.

In **Module 2**, participants develop strategies that can alleviate conditions leading to marginal learning by evaluating their own and examining a student self-assessment of psychological needs; analyzing case examples in student motivation; examining teacher behaviors that affect student achievement; and planning for improved teacher-student communication.

Participants in activities for **Module 3** learn how to adapt classroom practices to accommodate marginal learners by analyzing specific motivational techniques such as supplying missing skills, structuring the school setting for success, connecting personally with students, and getting help from other sources.

Module 4 activities guide participants through the administration of a district and school policy and program self-assessment, analysis of data, and development of a district or school effectiveness profile that begins a planning process to address marginal learner needs in the school or district.

Activities in **Module 5** provide opportunities for participants to examine constraints to implementing motivational programs for marginal learners, study characteristics of effective programs, explore a range of successful approaches, construct decisionmaking criteria for selecting programs, identify solutions to marginal learner problems, and plan for adapting and adopting programs for marginal learners in their own schools and districts.

Module 6 activities allow participants to study key concepts about marginal learning, discuss leadership behaviors that affect marginal learning, and develop and evaluate a team school improvement plan for addressing marginal learning.

Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

Module #		Objective
1	1.	Identify characteristics of marginal learners.
1	2.	Explore a variety of conditions leading to marginal learning performance.
1	3.	Analyze indicators of growing risk for children and youth.
1	4.	Develop a shared definition of marginality.
2	5.	Explore and assess attitudes and assumptions that affect marginal learners.
2	6.	Explore ways in which students can be motivated in school through an evaluation of psychological needs.
2	7.	Examine teacher characteristics and behaviors that motivate marginal learners and maximize achievement.
2	8.	Develop a set of in–class and in–school strategies that can alleviate conditions leading to marginal learning.
3	9.	Analyze specific techniques for motivating marginal learners and for adapting classroom practices to accommodate them.
3	10.	Develop methods for getting help from various sources to reach marginal students.
3	11.	Identify needs and plan interventions appropriate for marginal learners in participants' schools/districts.
4	12.	Conduct and analyze a self–assessment of school and district policies and practices that influence learning conditions for marginal students.
4	13.	Develop a district effectiveness profile in regard to policies and programs for marginal learners.

4	14.	Identify local conditions that may hinder achievement for marginal learners.
4	15.	Create a plan of action for meeting the needs of marginal learners in participant schools and/or districts.
5	16.	Examine constraints to implementing motivational programs and characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners.
5	17.	Generate a list of decisionmaking criteria to be used to select programs to meet the needs of marginal learners.
5	18.	Explore considerations necessary in planning for adapting and adopting programs and practices for marginal learners.
6	19.	Examine leadership roles and behaviors that impact assistance to marginal learners.
6	20.	Develop a team action plan for leading a local school improvement effort relating to marginal learners.
6	21.	Evaluate a team action plan for implementing activities and changes to assist marginal learners in the school/district.

Objectives will vary depending upon modules selected for presentation.

MODULE 1

Identifying Marginal Learners

As a first step toward implementing prevention and early intervention strategies, parents, teachers, and administrators need a shared definition of marginal learning. This module's activities are designed to help workshop participants identify characteristics that describe marginal learners.

Participants use the case study method to examine various sources of marginal learning behavior, then analyze statistical data to increase awareness of conditions that might put children at risk. They also learn to identify associated warning signs and levels of seriousness.

This module suggests a framework for understanding the dangerous pathway that can lead to learners being disconnected from the school environment.

Module 1. Identifying Marginal Learners Training Agenda for Focused Workshop

(3 hours)

Time Required		
45 minutes	Activity 1	Introductions and Examining the Sources of Marginal Learning Behaviors—case study small group activity
60 minutes	Activity 2	Analyzing Indicators of Growing Risk for Children and Youth—Jigsaw small group activity
10 minutes	Break	
40 minutes	Activity 3	Defining Marginality—group activity
15 minutes	Activity 4	Acknowledging the Warning Signs—lecturette with discussion
5 minutes	Activity 5	Resource Review
5 minutes	Activity 6	Wrap-up and Session Evaluation
180 minutes		

Trainer's Instructions

Introductory Activity: Assessing participant needs and expectations (ice breaker)

Trainer's Notes

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Identifying Marginal Learners*
Transparency:	*Module 1 Objectives*
Other:	Flip chart or overhead projector

As an ice breaker, and to assess audience composition, ask participants to introduce themselves by stating their name, position, and organizational affiliation (school or district). To provide focus, distribute and review the handout introducing the module (*Identifying Marginal Learners*). Using the transparency *Module 1 Objectives*, review the workshop objectives for Module 1.

To assess group needs, ask each participant to write, then share, the following:

1. One expectation they have for their participation in the workshop.
2. The reason they attended.
3. Personal experiences involving marginal learners.

List their expectations on a flip chart or overhead transparency under the heading *Workshop Expectations*. As the workshop proceeds, adjust trainer remarks and examples to the needs of the group members.

Soliciting *participant input* at the beginning of a workshop provides a valuable opportunity to gain insight about the audience's *informational and skill needs*, and to respond to some of those needs during the workshop activities. By writing their expectations on a flip chart or transparency, you create a record against which to compare the activities you have planned for this workshop. Later, in your concluding remarks to the participants, you may wish to place a check mark against each of the needs that were actually addressed during the workshop.

To establish rapport and credibility with your audience, you may also mention, briefly, some of your own work experiences in promoting programs for marginal learners.

Activity 1. Examining the Sources of Marginal Learning Behaviors

Materials needed:

Handouts:	5 selected *Case Studies* *Epilogues*
Transparencies:	*Case Studies: Conclusions* *Sources of Marginal Learner Behaviors*
Other:	Flipchart or overhead projector

In this activity, participants will read, discuss, and draw conclusions from five marginal learner case studies. Eleven case studies are included as handouts; the trainer should choose the five most appropriate for workshop participants.

The trainer might introduce the cases in this way: *We have five true cases of marginal learners to consider. Since 30 participants are present, I am going to ask you to rearrange your chairs so that there are five groups with six persons in each group.* **Note:** Where the number of participants is higher than 30, or where you want to maximize dialogue and to compare actions, assign different groups to the same case. In a group of 40, you could have eight groups of five each, with two groups for each case.

Assign a case study to each group, or allow each group to select one. Ask each group to select a reporter and a recorder, stating, *When we reconvene as a whole, the reporter will present the situation as seen by the group, and the recorder will summarize the recommendations for action made by the group based on the facts of the case.* Note the following instructions on a blank transparency or flipchart. Each group should then follow these steps:

1. Read the case material silently.
2. Review the facts in the case with group members to check that all understand the situation in the same way.
3. Discuss the problems or causes of marginality for the case.
4. Prepare a list of recommended "next steps" to implement with the student. "What interventions do you and members of your group suggest for the student?"

Distribute the case study handouts. Allow 15 minutes for discussion. Be available to answer participants' questions about the process of the activity or the content of the case studies.

Reconvene the participants as a whole group and conduct a report-out of each discussion group.

When the groups have finished reporting out, ask participants to draw some conclusions. Use the *Case Studies: Conclusions* transparency to help generate conclusions for four possible categories framed as questions and listed below.

1. What sources of marginal learning behaviors were illustrated in these cases?

2. What additional sources of marginal learning behaviors might be illustrated through specific examples you know about?

3. What trends or patterns, if any, were evidenced in the suggestions for intervention developed by the groups?

4. What additional questions about marginal learners were raised by this activity?

For reinforcement, you could use the overhead transparency, *Sources of Marginal Learner Behaviors*, as a summary.

For closure, distribute the *Epilogues* handout and review the "what happened to...." information found in the epilogues for all cases.

Activity 2. Analyzing Indicators of Growing Risk for Children and Youth: Jigsaw With Current Statistics (Cooperative Learning Activity)

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Jigsaw II (Modified)* selections from *Jigsaw Data* *Jigsaw Expert Sheet*
Transparencies:	*Jigsaw Exercise*
Other:	*Overhead projector*

Concrete experiences with the effective teamwork skills may be provided through a cooperative learning activity called Jigsaw. Directions for the workshop leader are given in the *Jigsaw II (Modified)* participant handout. Grouping is illustrated on an overhead transparency, *Jigsaw Exercise*. Excerpts from 10 reports on children and education are provided, accompanied by the *Jigsaw Expert Sheet* handout with guiding questions for group use. Choose five or six articles from the handout, *Jigsaw Articles*, for this activity.

The goal of this activity is to familiarize participants with current data about conditions that contribute to an increasing number of at-risk students in schools. This awareness should foster thinking about methods of prevention as well as intervention.

Four guiding questions are suggested and provided on the *Jigsaw Expert Sheet* handout for expert group use as they plan to teach their information to home group members:

1. According to the data, what factors appear to contribute to lack of success in school (and beyond) today? What information do schools have about a child by the first grade that might indicate potential learning problems?
2. How do these factors compare to problems of previous generations of students? Which factors have remained constant and which are new? Describe any trends.
3. What can you predict about future trends or patterns in marginal learning and at-risk behaviors?
4. Identify results of marginal learning or at-risk conditions.
5. Suggest a possible approach to alleviating or reducing one or more factors that contribute to student failure in school.

Ask participants to form home groups with the same number of participants as articles chosen for Jigsaw (five or six). Groups can be formed by natural seating (those sitting next to one another); or divide the total number of participants by the number of articles to determine the number of home groups needed, then count off by that dividend and assign all the one's to a home group, two's to another, and so on; or preassign groups by color dots on name tags. Proceed with directions from the participant handout, *Jigsaw II (Modified)*.

Provide transition to the next activity by asking participants to think about the students who may be at risk of school failure in their own classrooms or school districts.

Activity 3. Defining Marginality

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Describing Marginal Learners*
Transparencies:	*Views on Marginality* (3) *Profile of a Marginal Learner* (optional, see Module 6)
Other:	Flip chart paper or overhead projector

Ask each person to contribute one response to the statement, "Describe marginal learners in your district." Or phrase the statement another way: "What are some key words and phrases that might be used to describe marginal learners in your school or district?" Participants may "pass" on contributing an item to the list if they choose, or they may add to what someone has stated. Record the statements as key words or phrases on flip chart paper or on a blank transparency. Check mark statements as they are repeated or emphasized.

This activity assists participants to integrate findings from the previous two activities on sources and indicators of marginal learning behaviors in order to synthesize a shared definition for *marginal learner*.

Anticipated responses might include these:

Score low on IQ and achievement tests.

Are loners. Don't fit in with peers.

Have repeated at least one grade.

Generally lack interest in school.

Communicate poorly, verbally and in writing.

Seem to have a low self-concept.

Act out in class. Become hostile and unruly.

Act passive and apathetic.

Have difficulty organizing for work.

Do not do homework.

Have trouble concentrating.

Are often out on suspension.

While participants are making contributions to the list, you may pause briefly to seek clarification or to draw out an example. You may also want to corroborate a point by citing a research highlight. This activity provides participant involvement, helps the trainer assess the concerns and experience of the group, and may serve to encourage further networking around topics of mutual interest.

Activity 3 also releases some anxieties or frustrations participants may be feeling about their progress with particular student populations. As a trainer, be prepared to deal with a few biases as well. For instance, a participant might state, "Marginal learners are the weak ones who can't make it in the real world without a lot of hand-holding." Here, the participant is contributing more about his or her own outlook than about the characteristics of marginal learners.

Once completed, ask participants to reflect on the items the group has produced. Use the handout *Describing Marginal Learners* to categorize their perceptions. Categories may be organized around the topics listed on the handout. It is not necessary to ask all of the questions. The idea is to help participants organize their views on marginal learners.

In summary, ask participants in natural pairs (seated next to each other) to compose a shared statement (one sentence) defining marginal learners. Ask volunteers to read their definitions and record them on a flip chart or a blank transparency. Typical responses might include:

> Marginal learners are students who are not succeeding in school and who don't see school as a useful activity for them.
>
> Marginal is what you are before you drop out.

Share with the group some views on marginality that have been developed by researchers and scholars. These have been prepared as three overhead transparencies, *Views on Marginality*, included in this module. You may also wish to use a transparency from Module 6, *Profile of a Marginal Learner*, to compare participant responses with characteristics cited in research. Note similarities to group suggestions.

An Alternative Approach to Activity 3. Defining Marginality

Materials needed:

Handout: *Identifying Characteristics of Potential Dropouts and Dropouts in Your School District*

Other: Flip chart or overhead projector

Distribute the participant handout *Identifying Characteristics of Potential Dropouts and Dropouts in Your School District.*

Ask participants to place a checkmark next to those characteristics that describe marginal learners in their own school district. Have them work in small groups to compare responses and to suggest additional items. Conduct a whole group discussion to develop a composite profile of marginal learning behaviors on flip chart paper or an overhead transparency.

Activity 4. Acknowledging the Warning Signs

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events* Working with Marginal Learners: *Some Enigmas* *Bibliography* (optional, see Tab #8)
Transparencies:	*Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events* *Focus of Concern*
Other:	Flip chart or overhead projector

This activity introduces participants to a framework for examining events in the downward slide into marginality experienced by an alarming number of students today.

Using the overhead transparency or participant handout *Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events,* discuss the framework.

Review the framework with the participants, pointing out each level and noting the major events and concrete examples associated with each. Encourage participants to add to the lists of examples as a summary of Activity 2 (Jigsaw) and Activity 3 (Defining Marginality). This activity can also serve as a means of checking for understanding.

Emphasize the escalating levels of seriousness associated with each stage named. Engage participants in describing ways they could use this conceptual framework in their own schools or districts. Record responses.

In conclusion, distribute and review the participant handout *Working with Marginal Learners: Some Enigmas*. Ask participants to identify and share descriptions of any of the enigmas their students have experienced. Use the transparency *Focus of Concern"* to summarize the workshop or lead into another module by emphasizing the importance of involving all stakeholders in specific interventions, and services for students and policy/practice modifications where needed.

Activity 5. Resource Review

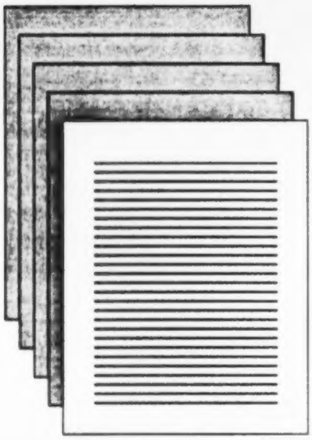
Display and discuss the utility of a variety of publications or instructional materials which address marginal learners. Publications listed in the bibliography in Tab #8 are suggested. Consider distributing copies of the *Bibliography.*

Activity 6. Wrap-up and Session Evaluation

Materials Needed:

Workshop Evaluation Form (see Tab #7)

Solicit and respond to questions about the workshop content. Review major points if necessary. Distribute evaluation forms to participants and ask them to return completed forms before leaving.



Participant Handouts

Examining the Sources of Marginal Learner Behaviors: Case Study Analysis

As a first step toward intervention, parents, teachers, and administrators need a shared definition of marginal learning. Prevention and early intervention strategies can then be implemented by examining the sources of marginal learning behaviors, and by acknowledging the associated warning signs and levels of seriousness. This module presents a review of research on marginal learners. Participants examine specific cases that illustrate a range of sources of marginal learning behaviors and analyze data about the state of America's children and families. This first module suggests a framework for understanding the dangerous pathway that can lead to disconnection of learners from the school environment.

Case Study

Alvin

The values of Alvin's circle of friends could be described by words like toughness, trouble, excitement, and autonomy. The group prized physical size, courage, and fighting skills. Intelligence was not related to collecting, storing, and recalling information, but in terms of successfully manipulating circumstances and people.

Alvin was transferred to a different school away from this group of friends. At first he was distant, independent, and quick to pick up on the expectations and limits in his new settings. As long as he could work on his own projects and at his own pace, he made gradual progress.

Alvin's behavior changed dramatically when another member of his old neighborhood group transferred to the same school. Incidents of outbursts in class, verbal defiance to teachers, and fighting with other students escalated.

Alvin is currently suspended from school and is scheduled for a court appearance on charges of assaulting another student.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L. and Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, pp. 50-58. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Case Study

Jackie

Mr. Benthaus had been laid off from school for the past two years because of a reduction in staff, but had returned this year to teach Advanced Mathematics to juniors. The textbook for the precalculus course was rigorous and required a great deal of elaboration by the teacher. While Mr. Benthaus had studied the subject in college long ago, he had never taught it.

Jackie's record in previous mathematics courses was average and she was taking this course to improve her skills. She completed her homework and studied for tests. She also worked part-time four days a week and was responsible for chores at home. Attractive, quick-witted, and sometimes irreverent, Jackie was a social leader in most settings. However, the earnest students in this course were not her "type."

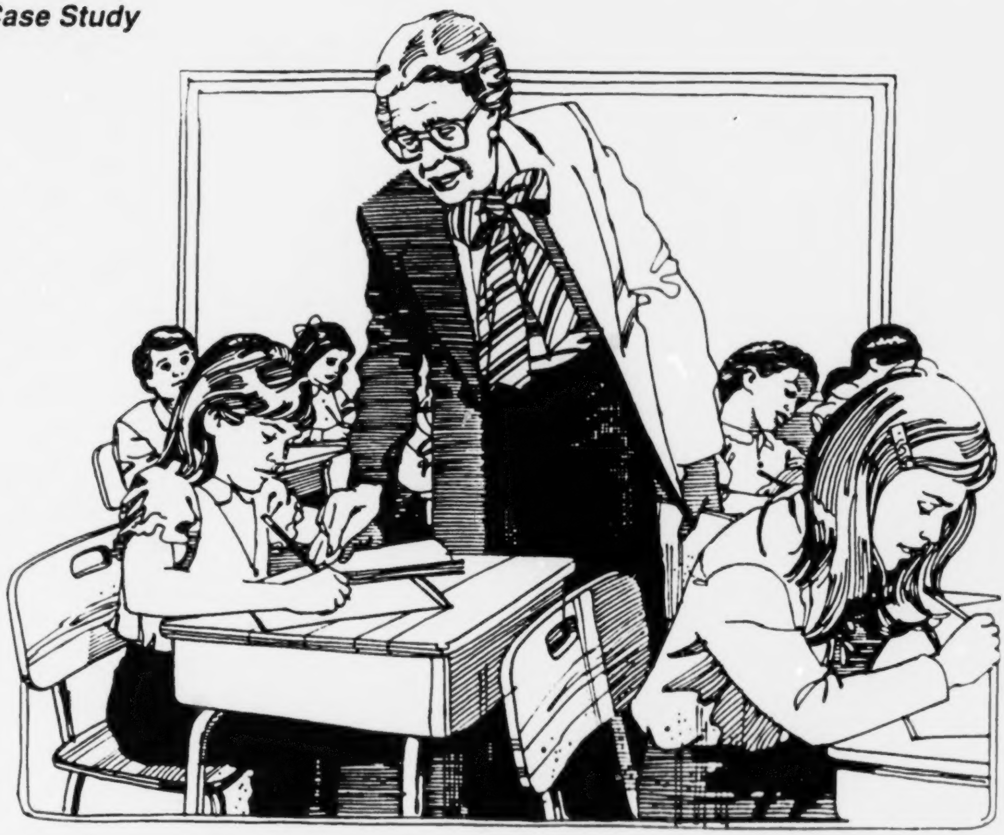
To Jackie, Mr. Benthaus was lax in classroom management and not knowledgeable in his subject. He let students come to class late and complained about it, was unsuccessful in his effort to eliminate chewing gum and eating candy in class, and was faced with constant off-task talking. Jackie regularly indulged herself in all three pursuits.

During the first quarter Jackie asked a lot of questions in class, worked hard, and was proud of the B she earned. In the second quarter she failed a test for lack of study time, but was surprised and disappointed when she received a D for the term. She grew less vocal in class and perceived the teacher's questions about why she was not participating as "badgering." Jackie once told him off in class, saying: "Leave me alone. I've got personal problems."

One snowy morning just before lunch, Mr. Benthaus was trying to hurry through a complex derivation that he wanted to finish before assigning related homework. When he faltered near the end of class, Jackie muttered "Come on, bell!" This amused the class and prevented the teacher from completing the derivation. Mr. Benthaus assigned her a detention. The detention was cancelled due to the snow, but Jackie did not make up the detention when school resumed. After two days, Mr. Benthaus wrote up an administrative referral for Jackie's failure to serve the detention.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L. and Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, pp. 50-58. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Case Study



Joan

In elementary school the gap between Joan's ability and achievement became increasingly obvious. Teachers perceived her as an underachiever. In high school she was placed in average ability groups and the expectations for academic performance were adjusted to her current level of achievement. She continued to work hard, but became unhappy with school. The challenge was gone and so were the friends who were now in the advanced classes.

The English teacher discovered that Joan's pace for reading and writing was markedly slow. When Joan was asked to read and write within a set period of time, the pace became even slower. It also became clear that Joan had difficulties with tests that were written on the chalkboard. In addition, her oral reading was jerky and slow.

An examination of her eyes found that the major reason for her underachievement was her imbalanced eye muscles. When Joan became tense or tired, her eyes would wander and she could not focus. Words would actually jump from place to place on the page, and lines of words would disappear or melt into other lines.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L. and Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, pp. 50-58. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Case Study

Ramon

Ramon was an above-average student who, at the start of his senior year, ranked just below the top third of his class. His parents thought he was underachieving, while his teachers and college counselor thought he was working at his capacity. His parents demanded that Ramon apply to some top colleges. In school he was advised that applications to these schools might be a "waste of time." The counselor suggested that he apply to the state university to insure that he would be accepted to a college. Ramon asked his parents to meet with the counselor.

The meeting between Ramon, his parents, the counselor, and a few teachers was a stormy one. The parents questioned whether the school had been doing its job to challenge an intelligent student. The teachers held that the parents were expecting too much of their son. As the discussion heated, claims of incompetence were countered with claims of parental neglect. When the meeting ended, Ramon felt as if he had been torn apart, yet there was still no clear decision about colleges.

Additional meetings resulted in compromise: Ramon would apply to one prestigious college, two quality liberal arts colleges, and the state university.

At home, the dinner table became the battlefield. The classroom became the retreat. Ramon told his parents and his teachers that he would no longer be a "spectator of his own life." Ramon refused to do homework and he seldom participated in class.

Deadlines for college applications now serve as a subject of frequent arguments between Ramon and his parents. The uncompleted college applications seem to contribute to his lower grades and general dissatisfaction with school.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L. and Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, pp. 50-58. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Case Study

Stuart

Because Stuart seemed comfortable and ready, he started school early. He was a tall and competent child who loved the playground, the gym, art, music, the block corner, and the cooking projects but had trouble following directions. If the teacher said, "Please get a blue crayon, a red crayon, and a piece of paper and line up at the door," he would hotfoot it to the door, smile engagingly, and wonder why she was cross. When reminded, he'd say "Oh, okay," as if hearing the instructions for the first time. Stuart tended to pronounce the letters "r" and "l" like "w." One of his favorite songs was "Wed Wivoo Vawee." In reading, he couldn't string sounds together into words. By the time he finished saying "b-a-t" he forgot where he started. Trying to blend "m-u-s-t" he said "stamp?" He spelled "dup" for "dump", "hepl" for "help", and "fst" for "fist." Stuart did poorly on paper and pencil math, although he was good with money and counting at home. His teacher reported that he was inattentive and that his handwriting was clumsy. By his sixth birthday, Stuart considered himself a failure.

In second grade, he frequently disrupted the class with silliness and mimicry. In third grade, he superbly played a minor role in the class play. His report card read: "If only Stuart would give the attention to his academic subjects that he gave to the play, we would have a star student." That summer, Stuart took diving lessons. In the fall he joined a soccer league. During fourth grade he learned macrame and made a beautiful wall hanging, but was in the lowest reading and language arts groups. His favorite activities were science experiments and problem solving. He was elected captain of the soccer team in fifth grade, but lost the position because of poor grades in reading and spelling. The school required him to do extra work in those subjects. Stuart was angry, rebellious, and sullen.

His parents took Stuart to a pediatrician, who found him normal. They then took him to a reading specialist, who noted that his work was below grade level and suggested that he read for pleasure. A psychologist who tested him reported Stuart as being intelligent but with low self-esteem. He also remarked on the slight articulatory difficulty and recommended a speech check-up. Finally, a speech, language, and hearing clinic evaluated him and identified significant auditory problems: his acuity was low, he had some perceptual confusions, his auditory memory was weak, and in addition, he suffered from a chronic infection known as "swimmers ear."

Adapted from Vail, P. L. (1987). *Smart Kids with School Problems*, pp. 105-107. New York: E. P. Dutton.

Case Study

LaShonda

LaShonda, 8 years old, locks herself in the bathroom every day after school. She has heard neighborhood children talk about intruders and burglaries, so she feels safer behind a second locked door. The time she spends alone waiting for her older brother to arrive seems far longer than an hour. She waits apprehensively, suspicious of every noise. She suffers from recurring nightmares, but has told no one. She knows her mother must work and there is no money to pay someone to stay with her.

In school, LaShonda is withdrawn and shy. She refuses to participate in groups, and at times refuses to talk. She plays near other children, but does not interact. Her school work is often incomplete or poorly done and she has become increasingly inattentive.

Her teachers have attempted to pair her with other student "buddies," and make every effort to include her in all class activities. They have tried unsuccessfully to have a conference with LaShonda's mother.

LaShonda's case is currently referred for review in a school intervention team meeting where testing and additional classroom/school interventions will be discussed.

Adapted from Alexander, N. P. (1986, November). School-age child care: Concerns and challenges. *Young Children, 42,* pp. 3-10. National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Case Study

Jerry

Jerry is a small, wiry, very sad third grader. He is performing just below grade level, although an early IQ test suggests he is gifted. For the past two years, Jerry's world has been falling apart. Early in first grade, Jerry's favorite grandfather died, and his mother suffered a miscarriage. During the second grade, his parents were divorced.

Concerned about dramatic changes in Jerry's behavior, Jerry's parents sought help, and Jerry began to see a therapist at a local mental health clinic. Although Jerry's parents first were told that the school would pay for therapy, the school refused because academically Jerry was doing all right. He was not in danger of failing any subjects. The parents had some insurance coverage, but are not currently covered for mental health services for Jerry. So Jerry was told he could not see his therapist any more.

Jerry was very attached to the therapist. When he faced the prospect of another loss, his school work began to deteriorate rapidly. One day he was found riding his bike in the middle of heavy traffic. His parents again approached the school. This time officials agreed that Jerry needed help and suggested assigning him to an intern who was doing field work as an elementary school counselor. They refused to pay for Jerry to continue with his own therapist.

At school, Jerry has begun acting out and refusing to do assignments. He has trouble concentrating in class and often refuses to cooperate.

Adapted from Children's Defense Fund. (1982). *Unclaimed children: The failure of public responsibility to children and adolescents in need of mental health services,* p. 4. Washington, DC: Author.

Case Study

Charles

On one corner drugs, on the other corner
thugs. On another corner hookers.

Up that street gangs, down the street
gangs. Downtown crews beating people
down for hats and shoes.

In the ghetto there's always violence, but
one day I hope for peace and silence.

Charles, the 15-year-old boy who wrote this poem, attends tenth grade at a vocational-technical school in an urban area. He is trying to understand his own family's turmoil as well as the poverty, violence, and unrest in his neighborhood. An older sister and brother have dropped out of school. Another sister quit her job as a housekeeper because she could not find safe child care for her preschooler. Charles' mother was abused as a child and only recently left her husband, who had abused Charles' sisters for years. Even though she finished a GED last fall, his mother has no specific skills and works in telemarketing. The family qualifies for supplemental welfare.

Charles is failing geometry in a class of 50 students. His grades are barely passing with the exception of carpentry, which is his favorite subject. In school he daydreams frequently and says he is just "wondering what happened." He is seriously at risk of failing in school and later in life.

Adapted from Thompson, B. A. (Ed.). (1993, April). *Together we can: A guide for crafting a profamily system of education and human services*, p. 5. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education and U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

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Case Study

Pablo

Pablo is an adolescent whose father died when Pablo was very young. Pablo's stepfather, with whom he has become very close, was recently disabled. His mother takes in neighborhood laundry and does housecleaning as a source of income. In school, Pablo is beginning to fight with other children and is increasingly disrespectful to his teachers. School personnel say he is now a "discipline problem."

At home, Pablo is often depressed, cries easily, and is readily angered to violent behavior. The city in which he lives has abundant psychiatric resources, but Pablo primarily speaks Spanish. A search for a Spanish-speaking male therapist has proved futile. An educational advocate trying to help Pablo complains that no one will see children like Pablo until they learn to converse in English. It is feared that as Pablo's school behavior worsens, he will be suspended or expelled from classes until he finally drops out entirely, or becomes involved in trouble with juvenile authorities.

Adapted from Knitzer, J., & Olson, L. (1982). *Unclaimed children: The failure of public responsibility to children and adolescents in need of mental health services*, p. 6. Washington, DC: Children's Defense Fund.

Case Study

Peter

Peter's cheerfulness and friendly smile were disarming. He knew that the purpose of the counseling session was to discuss his poor grades and irresponsibility, and he knew that his parents were upset with him. A diagnostic evaluation indicated no significant learning deficiencies. The fourth grader's academic skills were at or slightly above grade level in all areas. His tested IQ was 141, yet his grades were all in the C range. Peter's teacher reported chronic deficiencies in concentration, neatness, and attention to detail. His assignments were sloppy and incomplete. Because he was easily distracted and frequently made careless mistakes, Peter was placed in the lowest reading and mathematics groups in the regular classroom. Most recently, he participated in a program at a nearby learning center specializing in improving memory, concentration, and organizational skills; but after three months, he had shown no improvement.

When asked how he was doing in school, Peter replied, "Not too good. I have trouble paying attention. I suppose I get bored." His father interrupted to report that it was the same at home. Peter never listened and invariably forgot what he was told to do. Peter's mother defended him against his father's accusations and the two adults began to argue over who was at fault. Peter was smiling.

Adapted from Green, L. J. (1986). *Kids who underachieve*, pp. 219-220. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Case Study

Marci

Marci's face mirrors her disappointment in her straight C report card. "It could be worse, I suppose. But I was certain I would do better this semester because I studied so hard," said the fifteen-year old. Her mother explained that her daughter had always been extremely conscientious about schoolwork, but that diligence had not paid off. Now, as a sophomore in high school, she sometimes studied as much as five hours each evening and still barely passes her courses.

During a private counseling session, Marci said, "Sometimes I wonder if it's all worth it. My friends have more fun than I do going to parties and socializing. All I do is study. When I graduate, I know that I could get a job on a production line in the electronics industry and earn nine dollars an hour. Maybe I'm crazy to think I could go to college. I can't remember things. Most of the time I can't figure out what the teacher wants me to know. I take the exam, but it's as if I studied the wrong textbook. Sometimes, when I don't understand the material, I try to just memorize the facts, but then I get confused by the questions on the exam, or I forget the facts."

Marci was tested in fourth grade for a learning disability when her teacher became concerned about how hard she struggled to keep up. The tests did not reveal any significant problems. Her reading comprehension was slightly above grade level, and her IQ was in the high-average range. The school psychologist had noted some subtle deficiencies in auditory and visual memory, but nothing sufficient to warrant special assistance. Subsequent achievement tests repeatedly confirmed that Marci's reading and math skills were in the average to above-average range. Comprehension skills and inferential reasoning skills were average, as were math and written expression skills. Although Marci was very discouraged, she did not appear to have any significant emotional or family problems.

Adapted from Green, L. J. (1986). *Kids who underachieve*, pp. 143-146. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Epilogues

Alvin

Alvin withdrew from school, unable to connect.

Jackie

By talking to each person individually and then as a group, the administrator engineered a face-saving compromise. Jackie's grades in mathematics never progressed above a D, and she did not continue with the subject.

Joan

Joan was prescribed proper lenses and she did exercises at home to strengthen her eye muscles. Her teachers made sure she had sufficient time to take tests. In some cases she was given oral tests to demonstrate achievement. She received special help in organizing for efficiency, improving study skills, and proofreading. The gap between ability and achievement narrowed.

Ramon

Through prodding and assistance, Ramon completed the applications. He was accepted at the state university and placed on a waiting list at one of the liberal arts colleges. Eventually he was accepted to a liberal arts college.

Stuart

Stuart and his family agreed that he should repeat the sixth grade and receive tutoring for four 45-minute sessions per week after school. The learning specialist assigned by the school said that Stuart's retraining and remedial work would be structured very differently. By January of the new year, Stuart began to trust himself and to feel the strength he was gaining. That spring Stuart participated in the school science fair and later was a team member in the Olympics of the Mind program. He continued soccer but gave up diving.

LaShonda

The school intervention team meeting was scheduled so LaShonda's mother could attend around her work schedule. She was unaware of the extent of LaShonda's problems at home and in school. LaShonda's mother has been able to make arrangements for LaShonda to leave school with a fifth grade cousin and stay in their home, with adult supervision, until her older brother can pick her up after school. Her teachers continue to provide classroom and school interventions to assist LaShonda's interaction with other students. She will undergo a series of tests at school to determine the need for special academic placement. A follow-up meeting of the team and LaShonda's mother has been scheduled to review test results and make further decisions about the effectiveness of current interventions and the need for additional assistance for LaShonda. She appears to be responding well to the new after-school arrangements.

Jerry

The elementary school counselor/intern is working with Jerry to accept the death of his grandfather, his parents' divorce, and his mother's loss of a baby. They are able to meet weekly at Jerry's school on a regular basis. Jerry and the counselor have established good rapport, after an initial reluctance on Jerry's part to trust another relationship that might fall apart. Jerry's teachers met with the counselor to collaborate on classroom interventions. With assistance from his teachers, Jerry is concentrating and getting along better in class.

Charles

Charles' family has been linked to family services available through the Department of Health and Human Service. The school social worker, teachers, principal, and counselor have collaborated to secure appropriate financial assistance for Charles' mother and family members, get his older sister and brother into a General Education Diploma (GED) program to complete their high school education, locate safe child care for his niece, and enroll his mother in job training. By assisting all family members, Charles is more likely to stay in school himself and develop talents and skills to improve his ability to provide for himself and his own family in the future.

Pablo

Fortunately, the persistence of Pablo's advocate and his school counselor paid off. A Spanish–speaking therapist was located to work with Pablo and school personnel. Over several months, Pablo has matured emotionally. He is learning to accept the death of his father and deal with his stepfather's disability. At home he has taken an interest in assuming some responsibility for his younger siblings and follows through on chores around the home. After a meeting of the School–Based Assistance Team, Pablo's teachers assigned "study buddies" in each of his classes to facilitate his understanding of lessons and assignments. He is beginning to relate more appropriately to other children in school. Evaluation and subsequent special placement in an English as a Second Language resource class at school has assisted Pablo to adjust socially and academically.

Peter

With the counselor's help, each member of the family examined his/her role in maintaining the pattern of manipulative behavior that Peter had come to use. A monitoring and reward system was designed to support the pledges that each family member made. With assistance and guidance, Peter made improvements in self-discipline, concentration in class, and remembering what his parents told him. His father made an effort to be less critical, and his mother attempted to become less placating. Within four months, Peter's grades and performance improved dramatically and he was placed in the highest reading and math groups.

Marci

A subsequent study skills assessment revealed that Marci (1) had poor organizational skills; (2) did not know how to budget her time; (3) could not prioritize; (4) had not learned how to take effective notes; (5) was not able to outline material; (6) did not know how to identify important information when reading; and (7) had not developed an effective system for remembering data. Marci enrolled in an intensive study skills program and committed herself to learning how to apply these skills. Six months later almost all her grades were in the B range. There was one exception: She earned an A in history.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L. & Ghory, W. J.; Vail, P. L.; Alexander, N. P., Children's Defense Fund, Thompson, B. A.; Knitzer, J., & Olson, L.; & Green, L. J.

(For full citations, see case studies.)

Jigsaw II (Modified)

Jigsaw is a technique developed by Elliot Aronson (1978) and his associates at the University of Texas and the University of California at Santa Cruz. It is a relatively simple technique designed to increase participants' (students or adults) sense of responsibility for their learning by making each one an "expert" on one part of an instructional unit and responsible for teaching that part to the others on a team.

For more information on Original Jigsaw, see *The Jigsaw Classroom* by Elliot Aronson (1978). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications. Jigsaw II, as discussed and modified here, was adapted from Aronson's model by Robert Slavin of Johns Hopkins University.

Overview

Jigsaw can be used whenever the material to be studied is in narrative form. It is more appropriate in areas in which concepts rather than rote memory is the goal. The material for Jigsaw should be a chapter, report, or similar narrative or descriptive material.

In Jigsaw, participants work in heterogeneous "home teams." All members of a home team are assigned different material to read and are given "expert sheets," that address the assigned readings, tell participants which expert group they will work with, and contain guiding questions to assist in studying the material and focusing on pertinent issues. As much as possible, the questions should bring out issues that appear across the readings, so that recurrent themes and significant ideas are reinforced. The reading material should require less than one-half hour to read and must be written on an independent reading level when used with children. Longer readings may be assigned as homework.

When all participants have finished reading, members of different teams with the same topics meet in "expert groups" to discuss their topics and to devise ways to teach the information to their home teams. The experts then return to their home teams and take turns teaching teammates about their topics. Finally, all participants take a quiz on all topics. (The quiz may be optional with adults.) The quiz should consist of approximately two questions per topic and take no more than ten minutes. Participants may also generate questions, if time is provided. Questions should be challenging and require considerable understanding, since participants have had time to discuss their topics in-depth. The key to Jigsaw is interdependence—every participant depends on his or her teammates to provide the information they need to know. The quiz provides individual accountability.

Introducing Jigsaw to Your Class

Before beginning to use Jigsaw, have ready the following materials as described above:

1. Participant copies of the reading units (chapter, report, article, etc.) numbered, titled, or color-coded,
2. An "expert sheet" with guiding questions for each student.
3. Copies of the quiz for each student (optional for adults).
4. Numbered, titled, or colored "tents" corresponding to coded readings to indicate expert group table locations. (Tents are 8 1/2" by 11" sheets of paper folded in half to stand on tables.)
5. Flip chart paper, markers, and other materials to assist in teaching.

Time Allocation

Time planned for Jigsaw II depends on how much time is needed for participants to read the materials and the time needed for Jigsaw activities. The sequence of activities and approximate times required for Jigsaw II are presented below. Suggested times may be shortened or lengthened to fit particular class schedules or materials.

- Review instructions (about 5 minutes).
- Form home groups and get acquainted (about 10 minutes; up to 30 minutes if team names and mottos are created as a separate activity).
- Distribute expert sheets and reading materials (about 5 minutes), unless materials are on tables to which participants are directed to move.
- Read material (depending on length of material, up to 30 minutes).
- Meet in expert groups (about 15 minutes).
- Return to home teams to teach teammates (about 20 minutes).
- Take a quiz (optional, about 10 minutes).
- Bring closure by scoring the quiz as a group or discussing important findings from responses to the guiding questions (about 10 minutes).

Total time: 70-115 minutes

Step 1: Introducing Jigsaw

a. To explain Jigsaw to participants, you might use the *Jigsaw Exercise* transparency to illustrate group movement and say the following:

We are going to use a new way of learning called Jigsaw. Each of you will work in a "home" learning team to study reading material. You will have a special topic to learn about. After you read the material, you will become a member of an "expert" group to discuss your topic and decide how to teach the most important information to your teammates. Guiding questions will help you focus on the important information. Then you will return to your home team as an expert to teach your teammates about your topic. Finally, everyone will take a quiz on all of the topics (optional for adults). The topics are like pieces of a puzzle—each expert will work to fit his or her piece in so that the whole team can do well on the quiz.

b. Inform participants of team assignments by establishing heterogeneous groups of three or more as home teams. Read the names of members of each team and designate a place for them to assemble. Team membership may occasionally be determined by random assignment. Participants can number off orally or draw numbers, color or shape cards, playing cards, etc., that correspond to teams, or be preassigned by numbers or color dots on name tags. Participants should move chairs together to face each other or move to tables. Home team members should introduce themselves and get acquainted. (To encourage collegiality, a team name and motto may be created. This is useful for classrooms where teams will reconvene frequently. It should be done as a separate activity preceding Jigsaw.)

In a classroom where teams reconvene frequently, awards may even be given for team effort. Rules of conduct for group collaboration (active listening, encouraging, contributing, staying on task), movement in the room, material distribution, etc., should be taught and reinforced. Expert group roles may also be assigned as needed. For example: leader, recorder, time keeper, material manager, encourager.

c. Distribute one set of reading material and an expert sheet to each participant with an explanation as follows:

Each member of your home team has received an expert sheet and reading material on which he or she will become an expert. First, move to your expert groups by matching the number (or color) of your reading material to the room stations of the same number (or color). Next, read your guiding questions for focus, then the material, making notes or highlighting as you read. Then prepare presentations for your home groups. Finally, return to home groups to teach home team members. Each expert group member must individually teach his/her home team in a three- to five- minute lesson.

Step 2: Introducing Expert Groups

a. Ask participants to finish their reading and highlighting or notetaking on the expert sheets. Those who finish early should reread and take further notes for sharing with their home group. In the classroom, student participants who may have difficulty reading a passage should be paired with more able reader for assistance, or learning disabled students could listen to the selection on tape as they read along.

b. As soon as participants have finished reading, expert groups may be introduced as follows:

> Now you will all have a chance to discuss your topics with others who have the same topic. In a moment, I will ask everyone who had topic 1 to get together, those with topic 2 will form a group, and so on. Meet your group members at the table with your number. In your expert group, you will be able to talk about your topic, select the most important information, and create ways to teach it to your home team. You should each share your information so others will share theirs.
>
> A leader will be appointed for each expert group. The leader's job is to make sure that the expert group does its job well by trying to get every member of the expert group to contribute to the discussion and help add ideas. (You may ask for a signal such as folding arms across the chest to indicate understanding.)

If necessary, check for understanding by randomly asking a few participants to restate the procedure or rules. Explain further, if needed, then point out a location for each expert group to assemble. If there are more than seven participants in one group, break the group into two expert groups on the same topic. Appoint or let each group select a leader and other roles, if needed.

Ask participants to begin discussing their topics. The guiding questions should provide focus and assist participants to locate critical information. Recommend that they make lists of important information and ideas. Work with each expert group, as necessary, to help them structure their presentations (3-5 minutes) and use the time effectively. You may wish to give the expert groups special hints for teaching their home teams such as how to develop skits, poems, visuals (charts, graphs, posters), or other activities.

Step 3: Team Reports and Quiz

a. Ask participants to return to their teams and in turn teach or report in 3-5 minutes what they learned in their expert groups. They should emphasize the main points and anticipate what might be on the quiz in preparing their teammates. You may wish to conduct a discussion or review following team member teaching by drawing on the experts' special knowledge and skills. Allow 5 minutes per team member or reading. You may wish to distribute the remaining copies of all sections of reading material so each participant has access to all of the material.

b. Allow approximately fifteen minutes and ask participants to complete the quiz (optional when working with adults). Checking or grading could take place immediately in the total group by trading papers or self-checking with markers as possible answers are discussed.

Adapted from Slavin, R. E. (1978). *Using student team learning: The Johns Hopkins team learning project.* Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of Schools.

Jigsaw Expert Sheet

Guiding Questions:

1. According to the data, what factors appear to contribute to lack of success in schools (and beyond) today? What information do schools have about a child by first grade that might indicate potential learning problems?

2. How do these factors compare to those of previous generations of students? Which factors have remained constant and which have changed or were not present in the past? Describe any observable trends in the data over time.

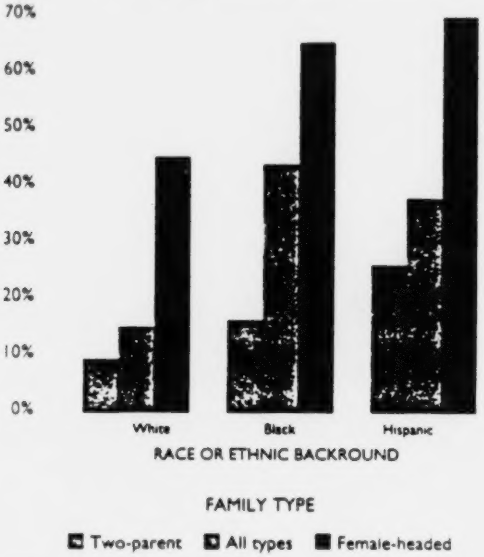
3. What can you predict about future trends or patterns in marginal learning and at-risk behaviors?

4. Identify results of marginal learning or at-risk conditions.

5. Reach consensus on one factor that contributes to student failure in school and in society and suggest a possible solution or a positive factor that might tilt the balance toward success.

FIGURE 2-5

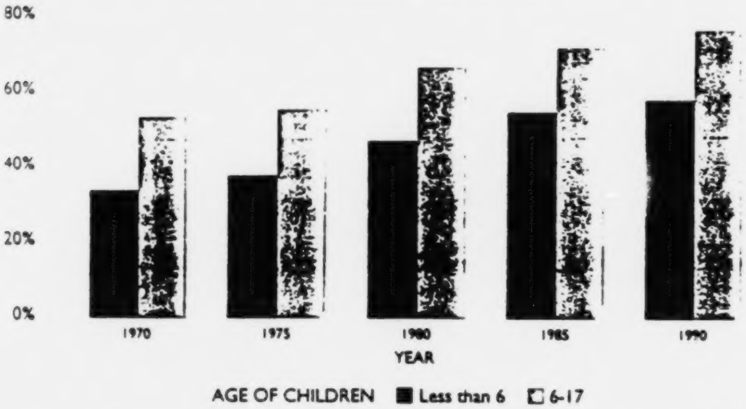
Poverty Rates Among Children, 1987



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, ser. p-60, no. 168, *Money Income and Poverty Status, 1989* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1990), p. 37, table 6

FIGURE 2-4

Mothers in the Paid Labor Force, 1970-1990



SOURCE: US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Handbook of Labor Statistics*, bull. 2340 (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1989), p. 244, tables 56 and 57; US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, unpublished data from March 1990 Current Population Survey

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National Commission on Children (U.S.). (1991). *Beyond rhetoric: A new American agenda for children and families*. Washington, DC: Author.

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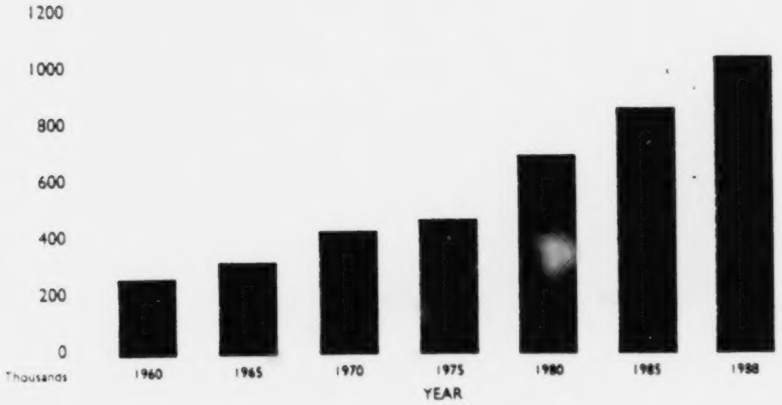
FIGURE 2-3

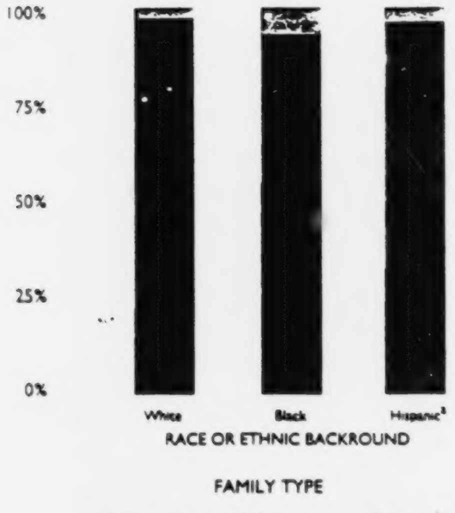
Births Outside of Marriage, 1960-1988



SOURCE U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Center for Health Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States 1988*, vol. 1, *Natality* (Washington DC. Government Printing Office, 1990), p. 7, table 1-6

FIGURE 2-2

Living Arrangements of Children Under 18, 1989



[a] Hispanic people may be of any race. [b] Living with relatives or nonrelatives.

SOURCE U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, ser. p-20, no. 445, *Marital Status and Living Arrangements, March 1989* (Washington, DC. Government Printing Office, 1990), p. 3, table C.

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TABLE 5-1

Economic Incentive to Work for a Single Parent with Two Children

(1991 Dollars)

SOURCE OF INCOME	Moving from Welfare to a Minimum Wage job ($)	Moving from Welfare to a $15,000 per Year job ($)
UNEMPLOYED		
Welfare income (AFDC and food stamps)	7,170	7,170
Total income when unemployed(a)	7,170	7,170
EMPLOYED		
Potential earnings	8.500	15,000
Work expenses	– 1,250	– 1,250
Welfare benefits lost	– 5,120	– 7,170
Change in taxes	590	– 910
Total income when working	9.890	12.840
Net gain from work	2.720	5.670
Effective tax rate on work	68%	62%

NOTE: Figures are rounded from data presented in Appendix A, Table A-1.

(a) Reflects combined incomes of welfare recipient and employed potential spouse.

SOURCE: Data from U.S. Congress, House of Representatives, Committee on Ways and Means, *Overview of Entitlement Programs* (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1991). Calculations by the National Commission on Children.

TABLE 5-2

Economic Incentive to Marry for a Single Parent with Two Children

(1991 Dollars)

SOURCE OF INCOME	Marrying a Spouse with a Minimum Wage job ($)	Marrying a Spouse with a $15,000 per Year job ($)
UNMARRIED		
Welfare (AFDC and food stamps)	7,170	7,170
Potential spouse's earnings	8.500	15.000
Work expenses	– 1,000	– 1,000
Taxes on potential spouse's income	– 1,090	– 2,570
Total income when unmarried(a)	13.580	18.600
MARRIED		
Welfare benefits lost	– 4,220	– 5,780
Loss of child support benefit	0	0
Change in taxes	1,680	2,090
Total income when married	11,040	14,910
Marriage penalty as a percentage of initial combined income	19%	20%

NOTE: Figures are rounded from data presented in Appendix A, Table A-2.

(a) Reflects combined incomes of welfare recipient and employed potential spouse.

SOURCE: U. S. Congress, House of Representatives, Committee on Ways and Means, *Overview of Entitlement Programs* (Washington, DC: Goverment Printing Office, 1991).

I have been told by the welfare office that I would be better off not working than I would trying to get a job because they would cut my medical benefits off after four months. I have a son who had open heart surgery, and he has to go to doctors at least once a year. They told me I'd be better off not even trying to find a job.

— PARENT
Charleston, West Virginia

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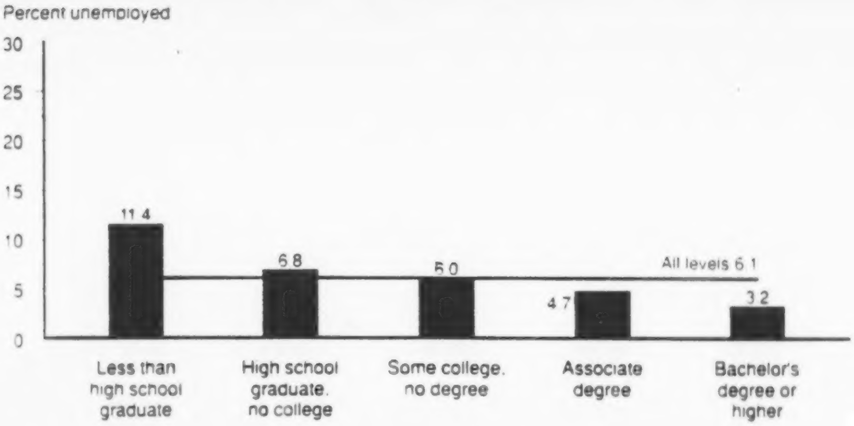
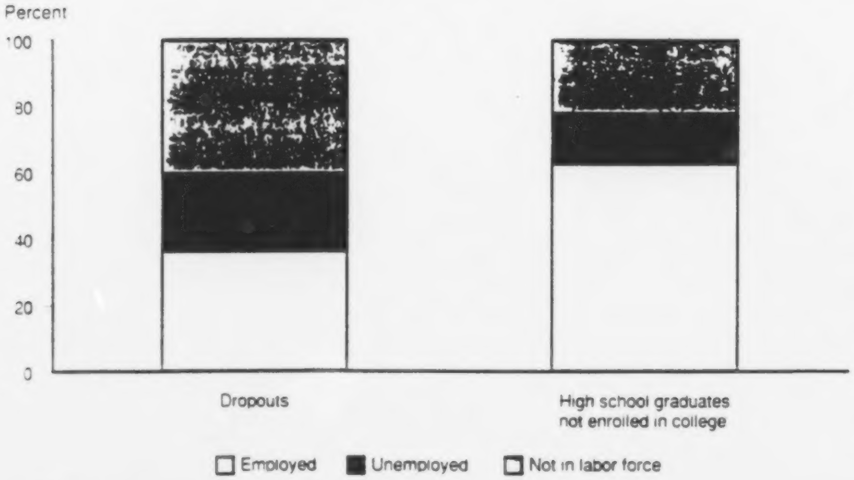
Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #2

Figure 23.–Unemployment rates of persons 25 years old and over, by highest degree attained: 1992



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, unpublished data.

Figure 24.–Labor force status of 1991–92 high school dropouts and graduates: October 1992



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Employment Status of School Age Youth, High School Graduates and Dropouts, 1992*

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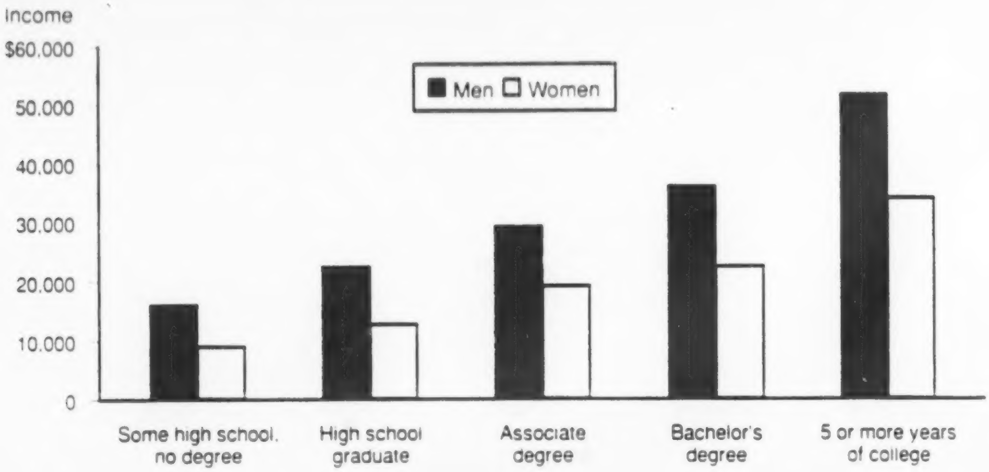
U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (1993). *Digest of education statistics 1993*. Washington, DC: Author.

Figure 25.–Median annual earnings of workers 25 years old and over, by years of school completed and sex: 1991



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60, *Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States, 1991*

Table 380.—Literacy skills and reading scores of young adults,[1] by race/ethnicity and level of education: 1985

Young adult characteristic	Prose literacy scale,[2] percent with score of—				Document literacy,[3] percent with score of—				Quantitative literacy,[4] percent with score of—			
	200 or more	250 or more	300 or more	350 or more	200 or more	250 or more	300 or more	350 or more	200 or more	250 or more	300 or more	350 or more
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Total	**96.1**	**82.7**	**56.4**	**21.1**	**95.5**	**83.8**	**57.2**	**20.2**	**96.4**	**84.7**	**56.0**	**22.5**
Race/ethnicity												
White, non-Hispanic	98.1	89.7	63.0	24.3	98.2	89.5	64.1	24.9	98.1	89.4	62.9	24.8
Black, non-Hispanic	86.3	57.2	21.3	3.5	84.4	56.5	20.1	2.2	87.8	58.0	21.4	3.3
Hispanic	93.5	73.6	40.9	13.5	92.0	69.8	35.9	3.4	92.8	72.5	35.2	9.2
Educational attainment												
Not high school graduate	85.4	57.9	24.1	3.4	83.4	53.6	18.8	1.5	86.1	57.7	20.6	3.5
High school graduate	99.6	81.6	45.1	10.5	96.5	81.8	46.2	9.0	96.9	80.5	45.2	10.1
Some postsecondary	98.8	92.0	67.0	26.8	99.0	92.1	68.0	27.2	99.3	92.7	66.8	27.0
College graduate	99.9	97.7	84.3	44.8	99.9	98.0	85.6	48.8	99.9	97.8	94.1	45.3

[1] Includes persons 21 to 25 years old. Excludes persons not living in households and those who were unable to speak English.

[2] Prose comprehension test measures the knowledge and skills needed to gain understanding and use information from texts such as editorials, news stories, and poems. A score of 200 indicates an ability to write a simple description of the type of job one would like to have. A score of 300 indicates an ability to locate information in a news article or an almanac. A score of 350 indicates an ability to synthesize the main argument from a lengthy newspaper editorial.

[3] Document literacy test measures the knowledge and skills required to locate and use information from documents such as indexes, tables, paycheck stubs, and order forms. A score of 200 indicates ability to match money-saving coupons to a shopping list of [illegible] items. A score of 300 indicates an ability to follow directions to travel from one location to another using a map. A score of 350 indicates an ability to use a bus schedule to select the appropriate bus for given departures and arrivals.

[4] Quantitative literacy test measures the knowledge and skills needed to apply the arithmetic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, either alone or sequentially. A score of 200 indicates an ability to total two entries on a bank deposit slip. A score of 300 indicates an ability to enter deposits and checks and balance a checkbook. A score of 350 indicates an ability to determine the amount of a tip in a restaurant using a given percentage.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Young Adult Literacy and Schooling*. (This table was prepared May 1989.)

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Table 368.—Unemployment rate of persons 16 years old and over, by age, sex, race/ethnicity, and highest degree attained: 1992

Sex, race/ethnicity, and highest degree attained	Percent unemployed[1]			
	Persons 16 to 24 years old[2]			25 years and over
	Total	16 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	
1	2	3	4	5
All persons				
All education levels	14.3	21.7	12.0	6.1
Less than a high school graduate	24.9	27.8	22.3	11.4
High school graduate, no college	13.9	18.8	12.5	6.8
Some college, no degree	9.6	11.5	9.3	6.0
Associate degree	6.0	14.6	5.8	4.7
Bachelor's degree or higher	6.5	—	6.5	3.2
Men				
All education levels	15.1	22.0	13.0	6.4
Less than a high school graduate	23.6	26.8	21.1	11.4
High school graduate, no college	14.7	19.5	13.5	7.3
Some college, no degree	9.4	10.6	9.2	6.1
Bachelor's degree or higher	7.7	—	7.7	3.3
Women				
All education levels	13.3	21.4	10.9	5.7
Less than a high school graduate	27.1	29.3	24.8	11.4
High school graduate, no college	13.0	18.0	11.4	6.2
Some college, no degree	9.8	12.2	9.4	5.8
Bachelor's degree or higher	5.5	—	5.5	3.0
White[3]				
All education levels	12.0	18.4	10.0	5.5
Less than a high school graduate	21.5	24.0	19.2	10.7
High school graduate, no college	11.5	15.6	10.3	6.0
Some college, no degree	7.8	9.5	7.5	5.4
Bachelor's degree or higher	6.3	—	6.3	3.0
Black[3]				
All education levels	28.8	41.8	24.8	10.9
Less than a high school graduate	44.4	49.4	40.1	15.1
High school graduate, no college	26.6	37.2	24.1	12.3
Some college, no degree	21.6	26.1	21.0	10.3
Bachelor's degree or higher	7.6	—	7.6	4.4
Hispanic origin[4]				
All education levels	16.7	26.5	13.7	9.8
Less than a high school graduate	20.3	29.0	16.5	12.8
High school graduate, no college	14.7	23.2	12.4	9.0
Some college, no degree	11.4	18.8	10.5	8.4
Bachelor's degree or higher	10.3	—	10.3	5.0

---

[1] The unemployment rate is the percent of individuals in the labor force who are not working and who made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks. The labor force includes both employed and unemployed persons.

[2] Excludes persons enrolled in school.

[3] Includes persons of Hispanic origin.

[4] Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

—Data not available.

NOTE.—Table excludes sex and racial/ethnic data on associate degrees.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Employment and Unemployment Statistics, unpublished data. (This table was prepared May 1993.)

Table 369.—Median annual income [1] of year-round full-time workers 25 years old and over, by years of school completed and sex: 1970 to 1990

Sex and year	Total	Elementary school			High school		College		
		Less than 8 years	8 years	Less than 9 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	5 or more years
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Men									
1970	$9,521	$6,043	$7,535	—	$8,514	$9,567	$11,183	$13,264	$14,747
1971	10,038	6,310	7,838	—	8,945	9,996	11,701	13,730	15,300
1972	11,148	7,042	8,636	—	9,462	11,073	12,428	14,879	16,877
1973	12,088	7,521	9,406	—	10,401	12,017	13,090	15,503	17,726
1974	12,786	7,912	9,891	—	11,225	12,642	13,718	16,240	18,214
1975	13,821	8,647	10,600	—	11,511	13,542	14,989	17,477	19,658
1976	14,732	8,991	11,312	—	12,301	14,295	15,514	18,236	20,597
1977	15,726	9,419	12,083	—	13,120	15,434	16,235	19,603	21,941
1978	16,882	10,474	12,965	—	14,199	16,396	17,411	20,941	23,578
1979	18,711	10,993	14,454	—	15,198	18,100	19,367	22,406	25,860
1980	20,297	11,753	14,674	—	16,101	19,469	20,909	24,311	27,690
1981	21,689	12,866	16,084	—	16,938	20,598	22,565	26,394	30,434
1982	22,857	12,386	16,376	—	17,496	21,344	23,633	28,030	32,325
1983	23,891	14,093	16,438	—	17,685	21,823	24,613	29,892	34,643
1984	25,497	14,624	16,812	—	19,120	23,269	25,831	31,487	36,836
1985	26,365	14,766	18,645	—	18,881	23,853	26,960	32,822	39,335
1986	27,337	14,485	18,541	—	20,003	24,701	28,025	34,391	39,592
1987	28,232	—	—	$16,691	20,863	25,490	29,820	35,527	41,973
1988	29,331	—	—	17,190	20,777	26,045	30,129	36,434	43,938
1989	30,465	—	—	17,555	21,065	26,609	31,308	38,565	46,842
1990	30,733	—	—	17,394	20,902	26,653	31,734	39,238	49,304
Women									
1970	5,616	3,798	4,181	—	4,655	5,580	6,604	8,156	9,581
1971	5,872	3,946	4,400	—	4,889	5,808	6,815	8,451	10,581
1972	6,331	4,221	4,784	—	5,253	6,166	7,020	8,736	11,036
1973	6,791	4,369	5,135	—	5,513	6,623	7,593	9,057	11,340
1974	7,370	5,022	5,606	—	5,919	7,150	8,072	9,523	11,790
1975	8,117	5,109	5,691	—	6,355	7,777	9,126	10,349	13,138
1976	8,728	5,644	6,433	—	6,800	8,377	9,475	11,010	13,569
1977	9,257	6,074	6,564	—	7,387	8,894	10,157	11,605	14,338
1978	10,121	6,648	7,489	—	7,996	9,769	10,634	12,347	15,310
1979	11,071	7,414	7,788	—	8,555	10,513	11,854	13,441	16,693
1980	12,156	7,742	8,857	—	9,676	11,537	12,954	15,143	18,100
1981	13,259	8,419	9,723	—	10,043	12,332	14,343	16,322	20,148
1982	14,477	8,424	10,112	—	10,661	13,240	15,594	17,405	21,449
1983	15,292	9,385	10,337	—	11,131	13,787	16,536	18,452	22,877
1984	16,169	9,828	10,848	—	11,843	14,569	17,007	20,257	25,076
1985	17,124	9,736	11,377	—	11,836	15,481	17,989	21,389	25,928
1986	17,675	10,153	11,183	—	12,267	15,947	18,516	22,412	27,279
1987	18,608	—	—	11,018	12,939	16,549	19,946	23,399	30,060
1988	19,497	—	—	11,358	13,104	16,810	20,845	25,187	30,136
1989	20,570	—	—	12,188	13,923	17,528	21,631	26,709	32,050
1990	21,372	—	—	12,251	14,429	18,319	22,227	28,017	33,750

[1] Data have not been adjusted for changes in the purchasing power of the dollar.

—Data not available or not applicable.

NOTE.—1987 through 1990 data were computed using a new processing procedure.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P-60, *Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States*, various years; *Money Income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States*, Series P-60, Nos. 161 and 166; and *Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States*, Series P-60, Nos. 174 and 180. (This table was prepared March 1993.)

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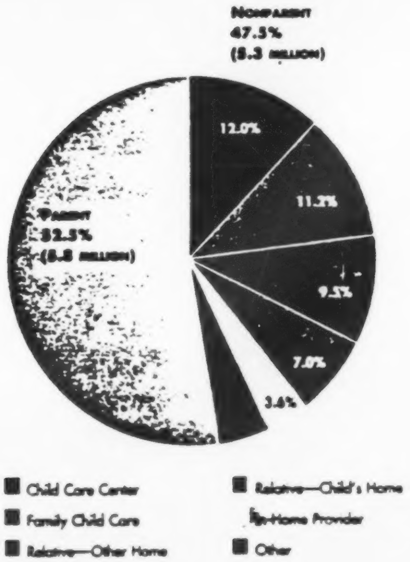
WHO LOOKS AFTER AMERICA'S INFANTS AND TODDLERS?

In 1990, more than five million children under three were being cared for by someone other than their parents.



Source: S. Hofferth et al. *National Child Care Survey, 1990.* Washington, DC: Urban Institute, 1991.

THE COSTS OF SOCIETAL NEGLECT

Each year, American taxpayers reach deep into their pockets to meet the costs, both direct and indirect, of policies that are based on remediation rather than prevention.

- In the six years between 1985 and 1990, estimated public outlays related to teenage childbearing totaled more than $120 billion. More than $48 billion could have been saved if these births had been postponed until the mother was 20 or older.
- Of teens who give birth, 46 percent will go on welfare within four years; of unmarried teens who give birth, 73 percent will be on welfare within four years.
- In 1991, federal and state expenditures for Aid to Families with Dependent Children, the largest entitlement program for poor families, totaled $20 billion plus administrative costs of $2.6 billion.
- In 1991, the estimated annual cost of treating fetal alcohol syndrome was $74.6 million.
- Initial hospital care for each low-birthweight infant averages $20,000. Total lifetime medical costs for a low-birthweight infant average $400,000. ●

SOURCES:

E. L. Abel and R. J. Sokol. A revised conservative estimate of the incidence of FAS and its economic impact. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research* 15:514–524, 1991.

Alan Guttmacher Institute. Washington memo: Prevention strategies discussed for teens at risk—House hearing on adolescent pregnancy focuses on social and economic costs. Washington, DC, December 1992.

Committee on Ways and Means, U.S. House of Representatives. *Overview of Entitlement Programs, 1992 Green Book.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1992.

L. V. Klerman, S. S. Brown, and V. L. Poole. The Role of Family planning in Promoting Healthy Child Development. Background paper prepared for the Task Force on Meeting the Needs of Young Children, Carnegie Corporation of New York, February 1993.

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service. *Healthy People 2000: National Health Promotion and Disease Prevention Objectives.* DHHS Publication Number (PHS) 91-50212. Washington, DC, 1990, p. 191.

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Carnegie Corporation of New York. (1994). *Starting points: Meeting the needs of our youngest children.* New York: Author.

The Quiet Crisis

Of the 12 million children under the age of three in the United States today, a staggering number are affected by one or more risk factors that make healthy development more difficult.

Changes in Family Structure Are Troubling

- In 1960, only 5 percent of all births in the United States were to unmarried mothers; by 1988, the proportion had risen to 26 percent.
- About every minute, an American adolescent has a baby; every year, about 1 million adolescents become pregnant.
- Divorce rates are rising: In 1960, less than one percent of children experienced their parents' divorce each year; by 1986, the percentage had more than doubled, and by 1993 almost half of all children could expect to experience a divorce during childhood and to live an average of five years in a single-parent family.
- Children are increasingly likely to live with just one parent, usually the mother: In 1960, fewer than 10 percent of all children under the age of eighteen lived with one parent; by 1989 almost a quarter of all children lived with one parent. Fathers are increasingly absent from the home.

Many Young Children Live in Poverty

- One in four infants and toddlers under the age of three (nearly 3 million children) live in families with incomes below the federal poverty level.
- While the number of children under six increased by less than 10 percent between 1971 and 1991, the number of poor children under six increased by more than 60 percent.

More Children Live in Foster Homes

- In a mere four years, from 1987 to 1991, the number of children in foster care jumped by more than 50 percent—from 300,000 in 1987 to 460,000 in 1991.
- Babies under the age of one are the fastest growing category of children entering foster care, according to a study conducted in New York and Illinois.

Infants and Toddlers Are Spending Less Time with Their Parents

- Pressures on both parents to work mean that they have less time with their young children; more than half of mothers of infants now work outside the home.
- More than 5 million children under the age of three are in the care of other adults while their parents work. Much child care for infants and toddlers is of substandard quality, whether it is provided by centers, family child care homes, or relatives.

Health Data Are Discouraging

- In the United States, nine out of every thousand infants die before age one—a mortality rate higher than that of 19 other nations.
- The mortality rate is higher for infants born in minority families: African American babies are twice as likely to die within the first year of life as white babies.
- In 1992, rates of immunization against common childhood diseases among two-year-olds were only 30 percent in some states; in most states, they were below 60 percent.

Physical Abuse, Neglect, and Unintentional Injury Are Common

- One in three victims of physical abuse is a baby—less than a year old. In 1990, more one-year-olds were maltreated than in any previous year for which we have data.
- Almost 90 percent of children who died of abuse and neglect in 1990 were under the age of five; 53 percent were less than a year old.
- The leading cause of death among children aged one to four is unintentional injury. ●

Sources:

America's children: Economic perspectives and policy options. Science 255:41–46, 1992.
Children's Defense Fund. *The State of America's Children 1992.* Washington, DC, 1992.
D. Daro and K. McCurdy. Current Trends in Abuse Reporting and Fatalities: The Results of the 1990 Annual Fifty-State

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AMERICA LAGS BEHIND

The United States:

- Is *not* one of 150 nations that have signed or ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (Cambodia, Iran, Iraq, Libya, and South Africa have also not signed).
- Is *not* one of 127 nations that permit employees to take paid parental leave after the birth of a baby (as do Canada, France, Germany, and Japan, among others).
- Has a *worse* low-birthweight rate than 30 other nations.
- Has a *smaller* proportion of babies immunized against polio than 16 other nations.
- Has one of the *worst* adolescent pregnancy rates in the developed world—twice high as England and seven times as high as the Netherlands.

Our policies contrast sharply with those of most other industrialized countries, particularly those in Europe. European child care for children under age three varies significantly from country to country, but generally speaking, the Europeans are moving toward paid leaves for new parents and a range of subsidized child care options for toddlers.

Here are some examples of countries that offer job protection and paid leaves to employed parents (usually, but not always, mothers) who have sufficient work histories:

- In Germany, a new parent can receive modest financial support while staying at home for up to one and a half years, or she can work part-time at her previous workplace.
- In France, she can count on modest compensation at home for as long as three years, or she can go back to work and take advantage of subsidized child care.
- In Sweden, she receives full pay while staying at home with a new baby for a year and a half, or she can opt to work part-time for a longer period and receive full pay.
- In Finland, she can stay home until her child is three, knowing that her job (or a comparable job) will be waiting for her when she returns. She receives her full salary for one year and a lesser amount for the next two years. Or she can take advantage of subsidized child care.
- In Austria, she can stay at home throughout her child's first two years, or work part-time until the child's third birthday, while receiving financial support equivalent to the wage of an unskilled worker. ●

SOURCES:

Children's Defense Fund. *The State of America's Children 1992*. Washington, DC, 1992.

A. Evans and R. B. Friedland. Financing and Delivery of Health Care for Children. Paper prepared for the Advisory Panel on Health Care Financing: Policy and Administrative Choices. Washington, DC: National Academy of Social Insurance, 1993.

S. B. Kamerman. Maternity and parenting benefits: An international overview, pp. 235–275. *In* E. F. Zigler and M. Frank (editors), *The Parental Leave Crisis: Toward a National Policy*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1988.

S. B. Kamerman and A. J. Kahn (editors). *Child Care, Parental Leave and the Under 3s: Policy Innovation in Europe*. New York: Auburn House, 1991, pp. 16–19.

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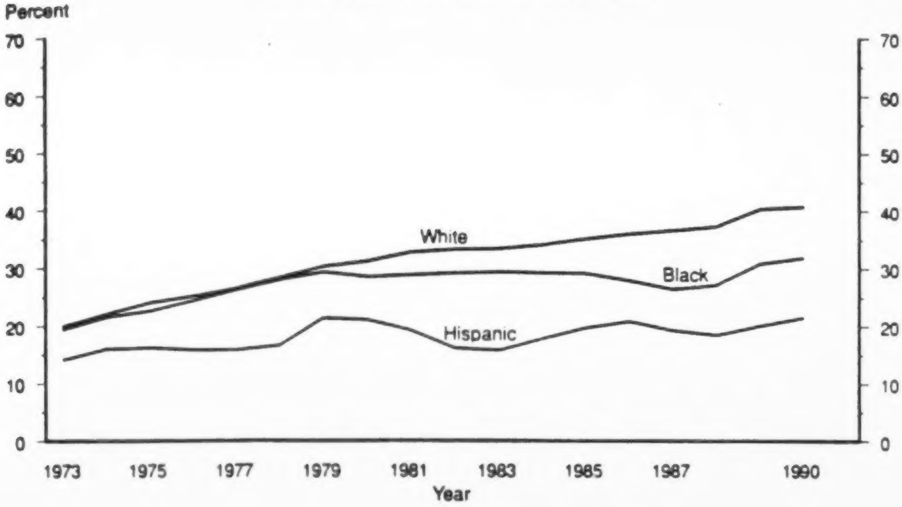
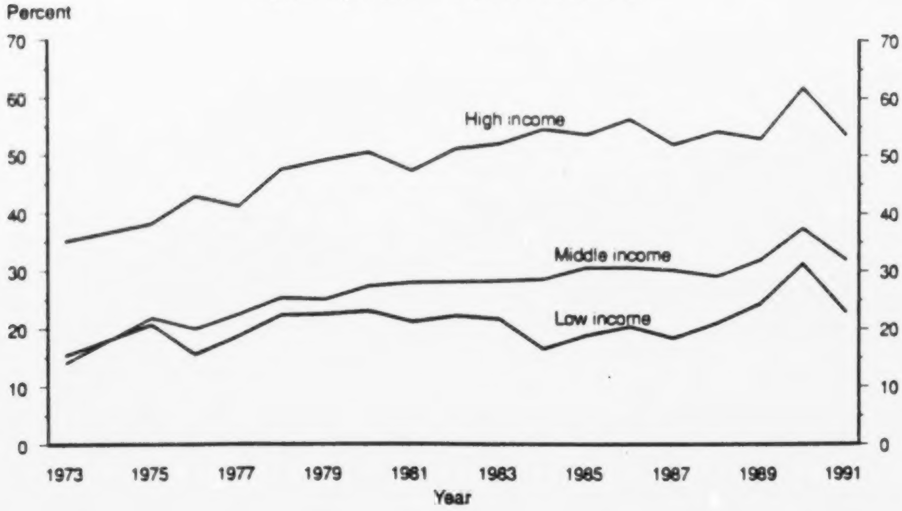
Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #4

Percentage of children 3 to 4 years old enrolled in prekindergarten

By race/ethnicity: October 1973–1990



By family income: October 1973–1991



NOTE: Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes; high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of family incomes between low and high incomes.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

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U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (1993). *The condition of education.* Washington, DC: Author.

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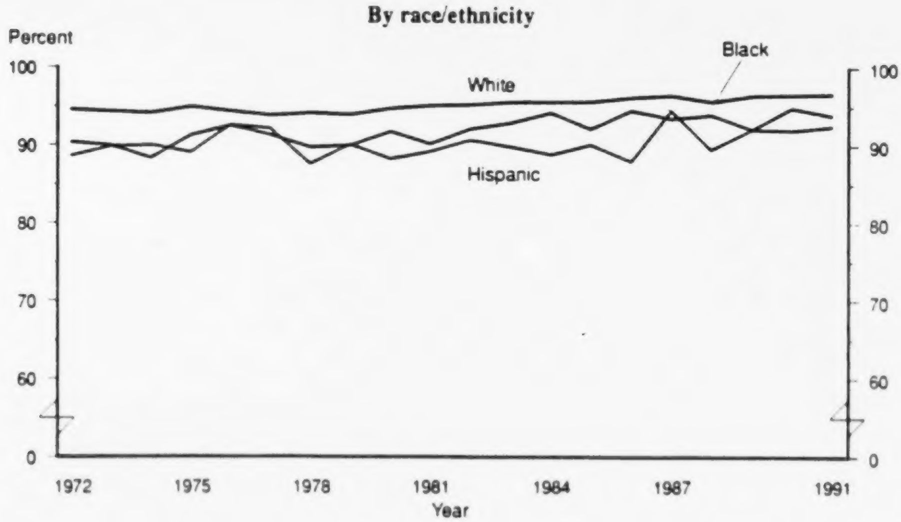
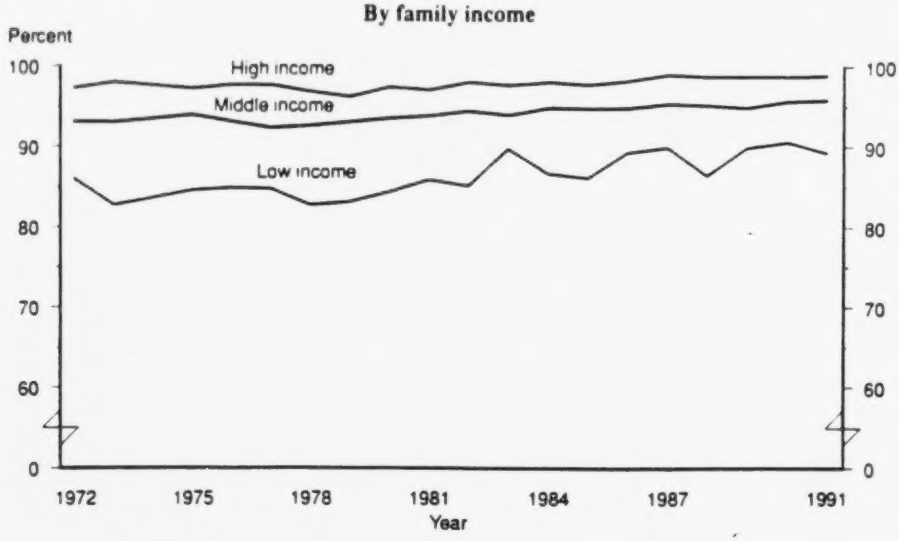
Indicator 4

Percentage of high school students in grades 10–12 and from ages 15–24 enrolled in the previous October and again the following October*: 1972–1991





* Or who had completed high school

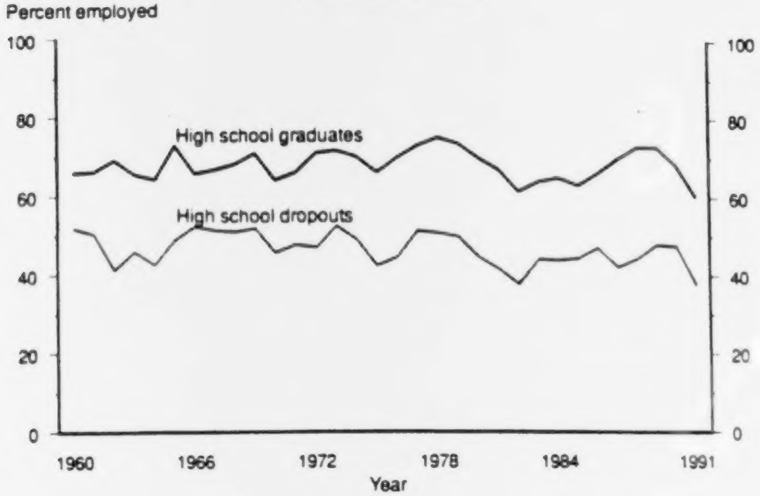
NOTE: Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes; high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of family incomes between high and low incomes.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

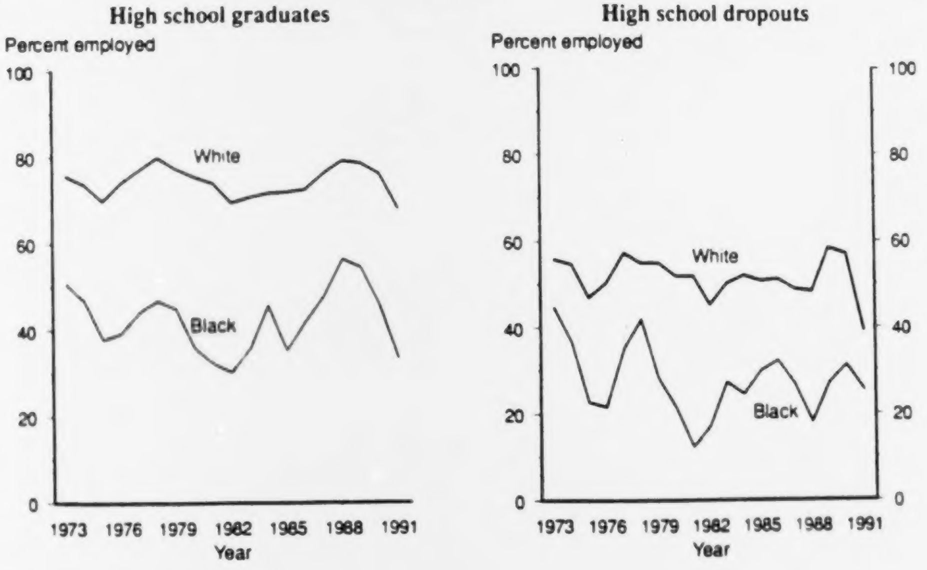
Indicator 30

Employment rate of recent high school dropouts and high school graduates not enrolling in college: 1960–1991

By graduation status



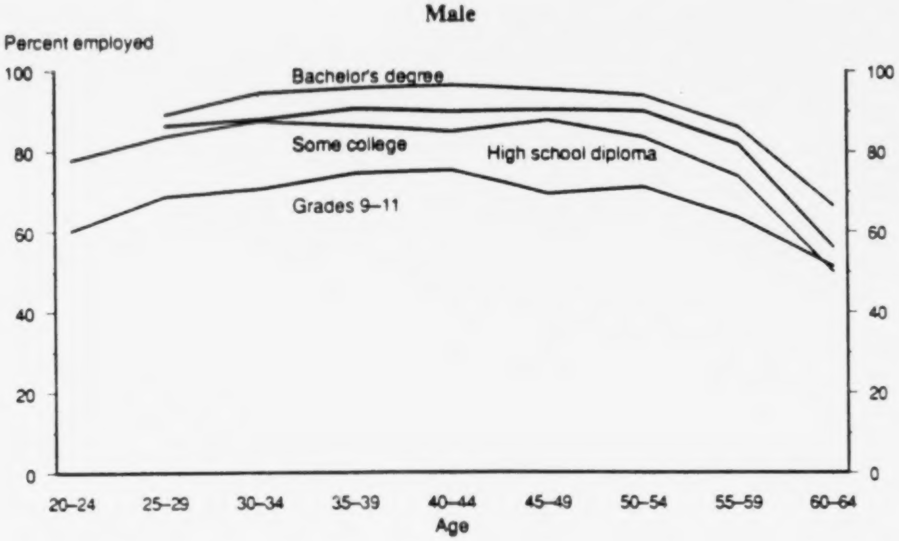
By race

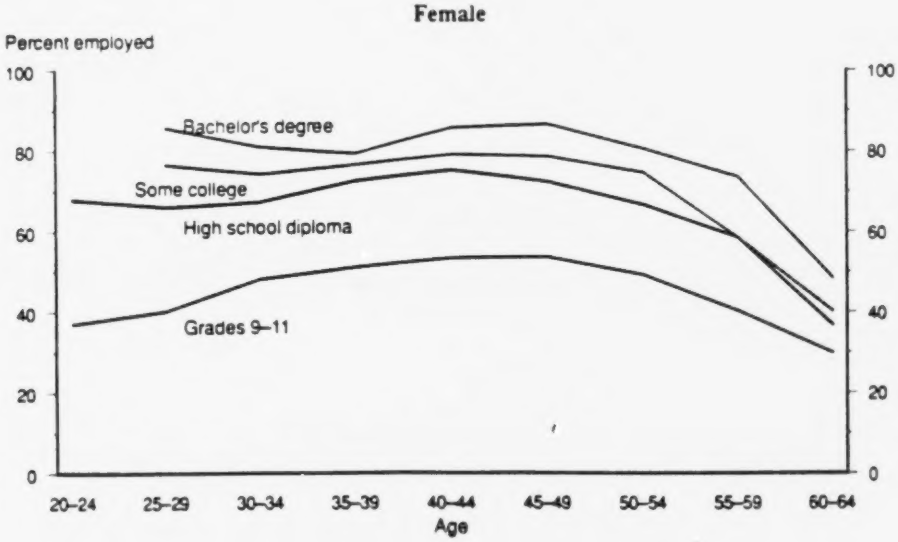

High school graduates

High school dropouts

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Labor Force Statistics Derived from the Current Population Survey 1940-1987*, and tabulations based on the October Current Population Surveys.

Percentage of population employed, by sex, educational attainment, and age: March 1992





SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, March Current Population Survey, 1992.

Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #5

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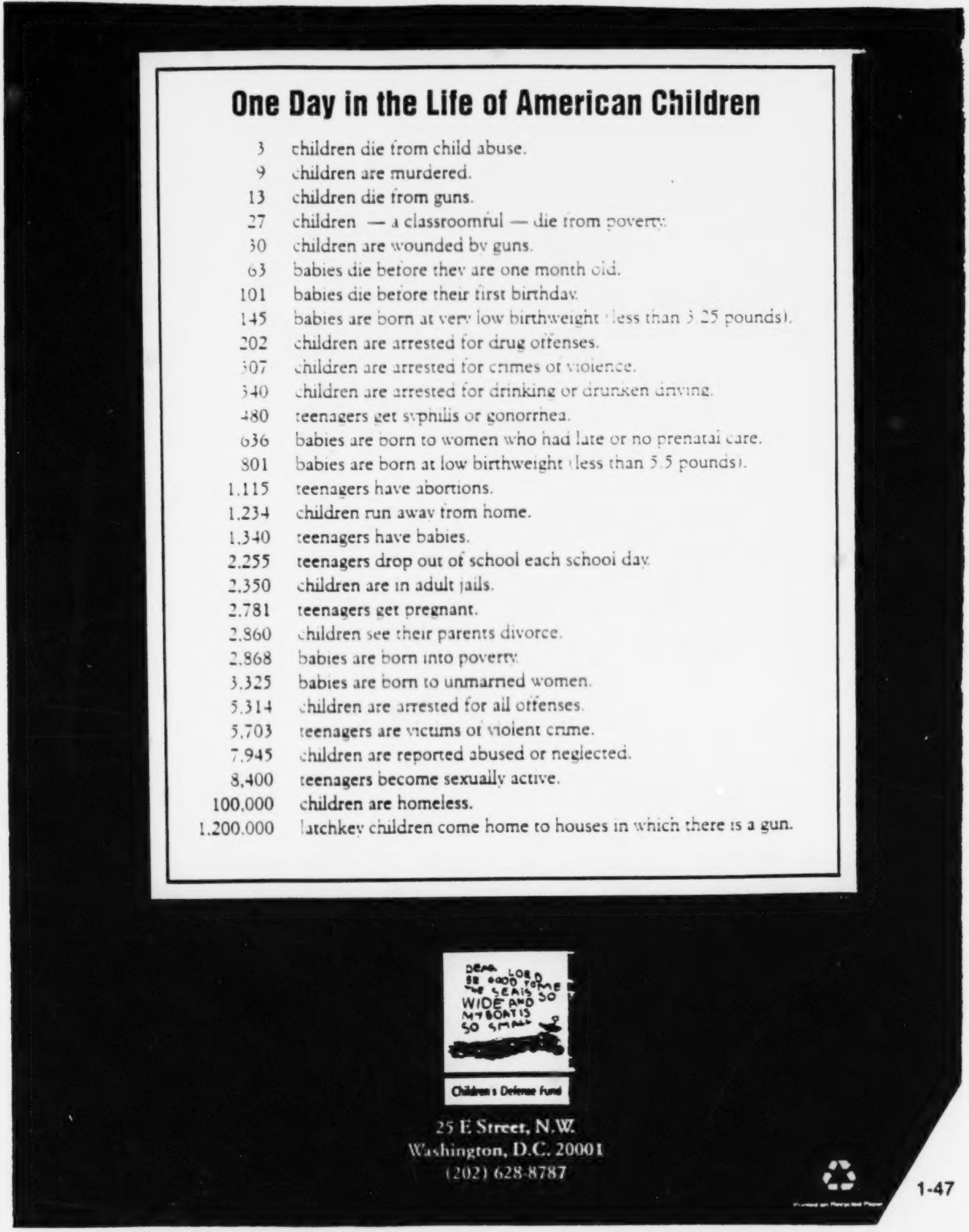
Children's Defense Fund. (1994). *The state of America's children: Yearbook 1994.* Washington, DC: Author.



One Day in the Life of American Children

3	children die from child abuse.
9	children are murdered.
13	children die from guns.
27	children — a classroomful — die from poverty.
30	children are wounded by guns.
63	babies die before they are one month old.
101	babies die before their first birthday.
145	babies are born at very low birthweight (less than 3.25 pounds).
202	children are arrested for drug offenses.
307	children are arrested for crimes of violence.
340	children are arrested for drinking or drunken driving.
480	teenagers get syphilis or gonorrhea.
636	babies are born to women who had late or no prenatal care.
801	babies are born at low birthweight (less than 5.5 pounds).
1,115	teenagers have abortions.
1,234	children run away from home.
1,340	teenagers have babies.
2,255	teenagers drop out of school each school day.
2,350	children are in adult jails.
2,781	teenagers get pregnant.
2,860	children see their parents divorce.
2,868	babies are born into poverty.
3,325	babies are born to unmarried women.
5,314	children are arrested for all offenses.
5,703	teenagers are victims of violent crime.
7,945	children are reported abused or neglected.
8,400	teenagers become sexually active.
100,000	children are homeless.
1,200,000	latchkey children come home to houses in which there is a gun.

Children's Defense Fund

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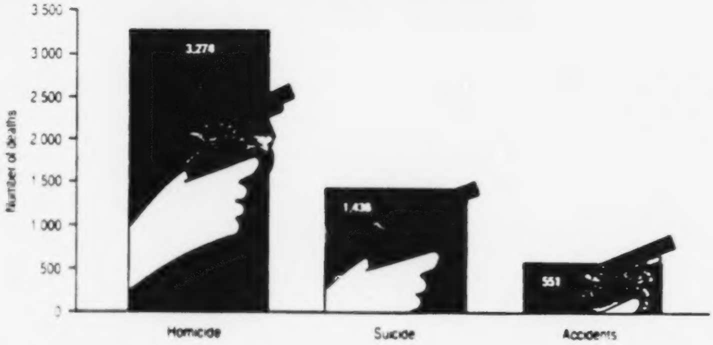
Facts and Figures

• Child poverty rate, 1992	21.9%
• Children in poverty, 1992	14.6 million
• Poverty line (HHS poverty guideline) for a three-person family, 1993	$11,890
• Annual salary for full-time, year-round work at minimum wage ($4.25/hour), 1993	$8,840
• Percentage of custodial mothers who had child support awards and received the full amount, 1989	26%

Figure 8.3 **Firearm Deaths**

A total of 5,356 children and teenagers died in 1991 as a result of firearm injuries including homicides, suicides and accidents.

Homicides, Suicides, and Accidental Firearm Deaths, Birth through 19 Years Old, 1991



Note: Does not include 95 firearm deaths for which the intention was unknown.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished data from the National Vital Statistics System.

• Infant mortality rate, 1991	8.9 deaths per 1,000 live births
• Black infant mortality rate, 1991	17.6 deaths per 1,000 live births
• Infant deaths, 1991	36,766
• Children not covered by insurance at any time during 1992	8.3 million
• Two-year-olds appropriately immunized, 1992	55.3%

Facts
and
Figures

• Children reported abused or neglected, 1992	2,901,000
• Children in foster care, June 1992	442,000
• Increase in children in foster care 1982-1992	68%
• Children with serious emotional disturbances	Approximately 3 million
• Juveniles held for delinquent offenses, annual checkpoint day, 1991	69,237

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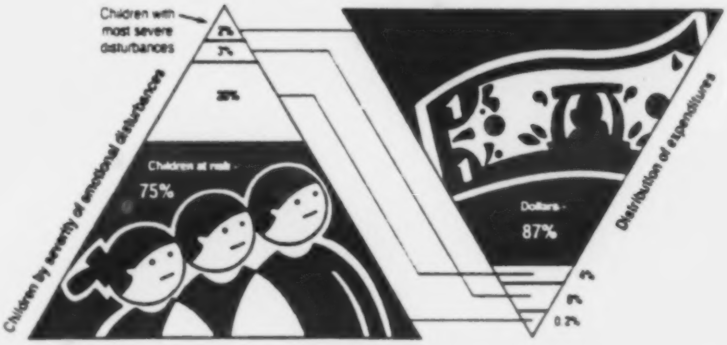
Figure 3.4 **Treating Children with Emotional Disturbances**

States typically spend far more for residential treatment of children with the most serious emotional disturbances than they invest to keep children's problems from intensifying. The goal of community-based systems of care is to promote earlier investments

Typical Resource Allocation for Children with Serious Emotional Disturbances: A Composite State



Source: Analysis and presentation by the Mental Health Services Program for Youth, Washington Business Group on Health, October 1993

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• Families spending at least half their income on rent, 1991	2.7 million
• Number of renter households with children receiving federal housing assistance, 1989	1.8 million (30% of eligible renter households with children)
• Number of children in doubled-up households, 1992	5.6 million
• Estimated number of homeless children	100,000 each night
• Estimated proportion of homeless population who are families with children, 1993	36%

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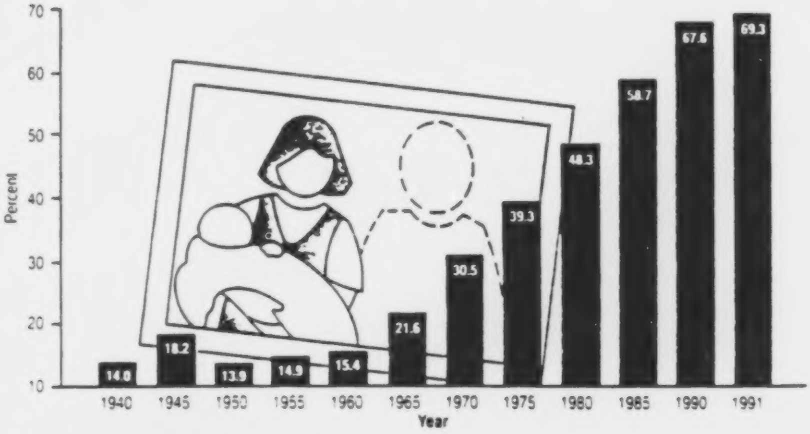
Figure 7.2 **Births to Unmarried Teens**

Fewer teens are having babies today than in the late 1950s, but those who do are much more likely to be unmarried.

Percentage of Teen Births That Were to Unmarried Teens, 1940-1991, Selected Years

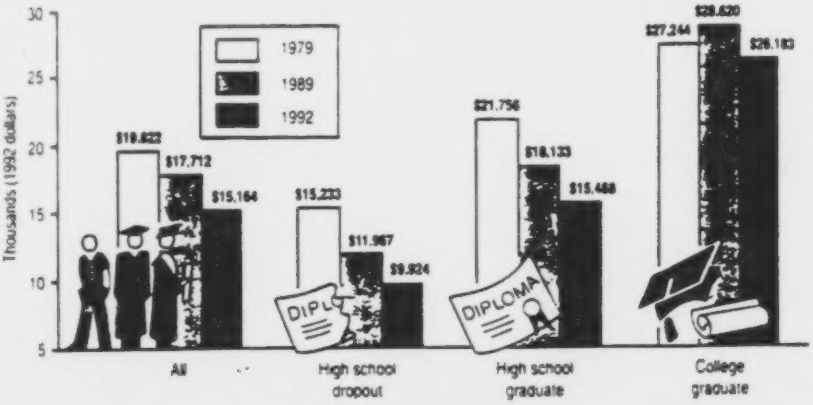


Source: National Center for Health Statistics

Figure 7.5 **Young Men's Earnings**

While there has been little change in the inflation-adjusted earnings of college graduates, earnings for young men without college degrees have declined about 30 percent since 1979.

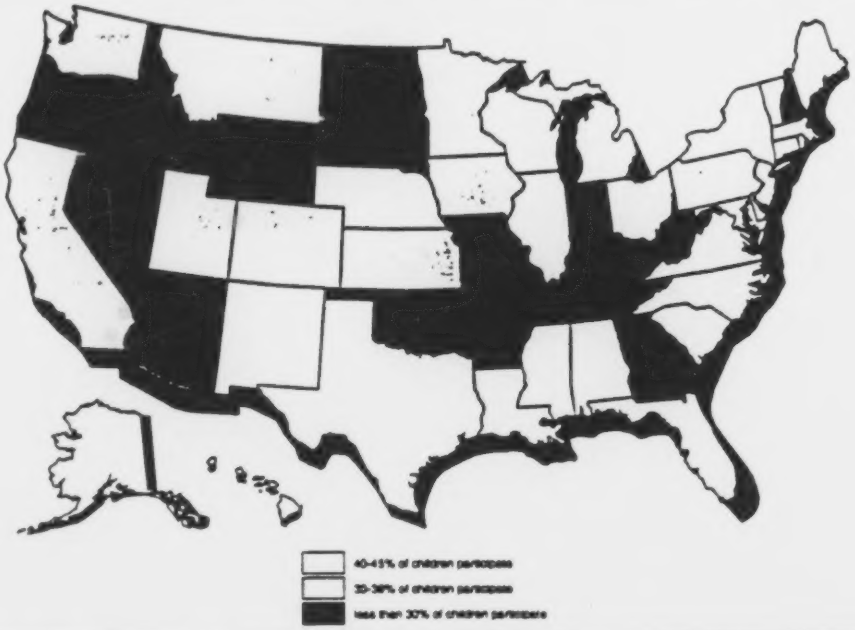
Real Mean Annual Earnings of Young Men Ages 20-29, by Educational Attainment, 1979, 1989, and 1992 (in 1992 dollars)



Source: Current Population Survey, Bureau of the Census. Calculations by the Center for Labor Market Studies, Northwestern University

Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #6

GAO LOW PRESCHOOL PARTICIPATION FOUND IN ALL STATES


40-45% of children participate
30-39% of children participate
less than 30% of children participate

Preschool participation rates by state ranged from about 21 percent to 45 percent in 1990 for all poor 3- and 4-year-olds.[2] For additional

---

[2] Like all previous censuses, the 1990 decennial census undercounted the U.S. population and underestimated school participation of all children by approximately 5 percentage points.

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United States General Accounting Office. (1994, May). *Early childhood programs: Many poor children and strained resources challenge Head Start.* Washington, DC: Author.

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GAO THE NUMBER OF POOR CHILDREN HAS INCREASED

Poor children	1980	1990	Total (percent change)
All 3- and 4-year-olds	1,119,639	1,436,191	316,552 (28%)
Immigrant	81,577	132,471	50,894 (62%)
In linguistically isolated families	110,876	153,243	42,367 (38%)
In single-parent families	598,638	871,349	272,711 (46%)
In families where the most educated parent had not completed high school	471,122	565,640	94,518 (20%)

The number of poor preschool-age children grew between 1980 and 1990 from 1.1 to 1.4 million. This represents a 28-percent increase in poor 3- and 4-year-olds, compared with a 16-percent increase in all preschool-age children. Children at great risk of school failure and those who have the

GAO

PRESCHOOL PARTICIPATION LOW FOR POOR CHILDREN

- Only 35 percent of poor 3- and 4-year-olds attend preschool.
- Low levels of participation can be found in every state.
- Participation rates are particularly low for poor children in
  - immigrant families,
  - linguistically isolated families,
  - rural areas.

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In 1990, only 22 percent of poor 3-year-olds and 49 percent of poor 4-year-olds participated in preschool compared with 60 percent of children in high-income families. Participation rates were also low for poor preschool-age immigrant (32 percent) and linguistically isolated children (33 percent) and children living in rural areas (31 percent).[1]

GAO

DESPITE GROWTH, HEAD START SERVES FEW ELIGIBLE CHILDREN

Head Start attempts to focus on child development and providing access to a full range of human services.

However, only 29 percent of eligible 3- and 4-year-olds attend Head Start.

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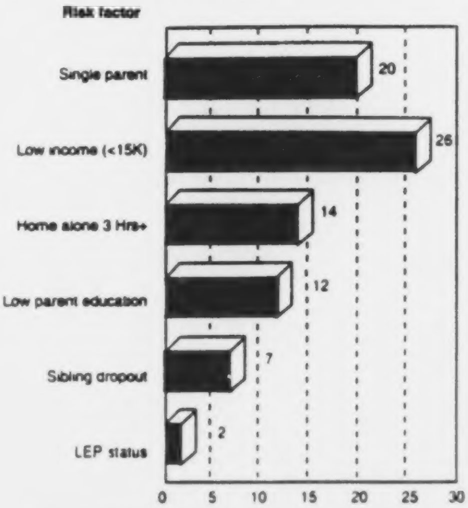
In 1993, 17 percent of eligible 3-year-olds and 41 percent of eligible 4-year-olds attended Head Start.

Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #7

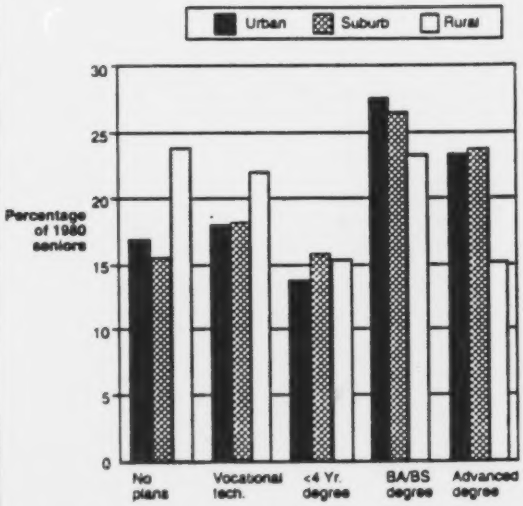
Figure 9–1.—Percentage of rural eighth graders with various risk factors



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, NELS:88, special tabulations.

Limited English Proficiency (LEP)

Figure 10–1.—Postsecondary educational plans of 1980 seniors, by location



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School and Beyond, 1980-1986.

Table 10–6.—Parental expectations of children's post-high school experience as reported by nonrural and rural students

	Father		Mother	
Expectation	Nonrural	Rural	Nonrural	Rural
	Percent			
College	57.9	49.2	72.3	60.0
Full-time job	8.5	14.1	9.2	14.1
Trade school	6.0	9.5	7.7	11.5
Military	3.1	4.1	2.9	3.2
They don't care	2.5	3.9	1.6	3.1
I don't know	8.8	9.9	3.8	5.7
Does not apply	13.2	9.3	2.4	2.3

SOURCE: Cobb, R.A., W.G. McIntire, and P.A. Pratt. 1989. Vocational and Educational Aspirations of High School Students: A Problem for Rural America. *Research in Rural Education* 6 (2): 11–16.

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Stern, J. D., Editor. (1994, June). *The condition of education in rural schools.* Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

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Table 5-2.—Percentage of public and private school students receiving publicly funded ECIA Chapter 1 services, by selected school characteristics: School year 1987-88

School characteristics	All schools	Public				Private			
		Total	Elementary	Secondary	Combined	Total	Elementary	Secondary	Combined
Total	10.2	11.1	14.8	4.9	12.1	3.3	3.7	(1)	4.3
Community type									
Rural/farming	12.1	12.4	16.8	4.6	11.7	5.1	4.0	(1)	(1)
Small city/town	9.3	9.9	13.2	4.2	12.2	3.1	3.4	(1)	(1)
Suburban	5.9	6.6	8.9	3.3	(1)	1.6	2.7	(1)	(1)
Urban	12.4	14.1	18.5	6.7	13.7	3.9	4.3	(1)	5.6
Other (2)	20.9	22.1	21.2	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
School size									
Less than 150	10.2	17.7	17.5	13.2	24.5	3.8	1.9	(1)	7.6
150-299	10.7	13.2	15.0	5.9	13.6	5.4	5.7	(1)	(1)
300-499	11.2	12.3	13.9	4.0	11.3	2.5	3.0	(1)	(1)
500-749	11.6	12.4	14.4	5.7	11.9	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
750 or more	8.2	8.7	16.4	4.6	9.1	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Minority students									
Less than 5 percent	6.4	7.3	9.9	2.6	9.0	1.8	2.5	(1)	(1)
5 percent – 19 percent	6.3	7.0	9.4	3.2	10.2	1.8	2.5	(1)	(1)
20 percent – 49 percent	9.0	9.4	12.5	3.9	14.2	5.0	3.1	(1)	(1)
50 percent or more	20.4	21.2	26.7	10.8	18.1	9.6	9.0	(1)	(1)

NOTE: (1) Too few sample cases (fewer than 30) for a reliable estimate.
(2) Includes military bases and Indian reservations.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey, 1987-88.

Table 9-10.—**Percentage of 1988 eighth graders with various risk factors, by urbanicity**

	Risk factors											
Urbanicity	Parent is single		Parents have no h.s. diploma		Limited English proficiency		Income less than $15,000		Has a sibling who dropped out		Home alone more than three hours	
	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
Total	21.66	78.34	10.23	89.77	2.07	97.93	21.13	78.87	6.39	93.61	13.49	86.51
Standard error	0.441	0.441	0.422	0.422	0.281	0.281	0.574	0.574	0.208	0.208	0.269	0.269
Unweighted	22,433	22,433	22,626	22,626	22,409	22,409	21,594	21,594	21,967	21,967	22,219	22,219
Weighted (1,000s)	2,790	2,790	2,813	2,813	2,785	2,785	2,689	2,689	2,735	2,735	2,761	2,2761
Urban	28.73	71.27	12.08	87.92	2.83	97.17	26.86	73.14	6.90	93.10	14.80	85.20
Standard error	1.048	1.048	0.833	0.833	0.465	0.465	1.215	1.215	0.413	0.413	0.539	0.539
Unweighted	6,774	6,774	6,844	6,844	6,772	6,772	6,509	6,509	6,623	6,623	6,697	6,697
Weighted (1,000s)	681	681	688	688	679	679	655	655	665	665	671	671
Suburban	18.82	81.18	8.10	91.90	1.65	98.35	14.47	85.53	5.61	94.39	12.62	87.38
Standard error	0.577	0.577	0.630	0.630	0.262	0.262	0.788	0.788	0.315	0.315	0.429	0.429
Unweighted	9,284	9,284	9,363	9,363	9,271	9,271	8,925	8,925	9,094	9,094	9,206	9,206
Weighted (1,000s)	1,213	1,213	1,224	1,224	1,211	1,211	1,168	1,168	1,191	1,191	1,203	1,203
Rural	20.16	79.84	11.72	88.28	2.06	97.94	25.79	74.71	7.06	92.94	13.69	86.31
Standard error	0.669	0.669	0.774	0.774	0.720	0.720	0.966	0.966	0.374	0.374	0.442	0.442
Unweighted	6,375	6,375	6,419	6,419	6,366	6,366	6,160	6,160	6,250	6,250	6,316	6,316
Weighted (1,000s)	896	896	902	902	894	894	865	865	879	879	887	887

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988: Base Year Student Survey.

Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #8

Table 20.—Percentage of NELS:88 10th- to 12th-grade dropouts who reported that various reasons for dropping out of school applied to them, by sex and race–ethnicity: 1992

		Sex		Race-ethnicity		
	Total	Male	Female	Hispanic	Black, non-Hispanic	White, non-Hispanic
School-related:						
Did not like school	42.9	43.6	42.2	48.0	28.8	45.5
Could not get along with teachers	22.8	24.6	21.1	24.6	27.8	21.5
Could not get along with students	14.5	17.7	11.6	15.6	18.4	13.6
Did not feel safe at school	6.0	7.0	5.1	8.3	8.5	4.8
Felt I didn't belong	24.2	25.8	22.7	16.0	25.9	26.6
Could not keep up with schoolwork	31.3	32.7	29.9	35.0	25.6	30.3
Was failing school	38.7	43.4	34.5	40.6	39.5	36.6
Changed school and did not like new school	10.6	10.5	10.7	12.3	9.1	10.2
Was suspended/expelled from school	15.5	21.6	10.0	10.1	24.4	15.4
Job-related:						
Could not work and go to school at same time	22.8	26.9	19.1	20.4	15.4	24.6
Found a job	28.5	35.9	21.8	34.1	19.1	27.5
Family-related:						
Had to support family	11.2	10.4	11.9	15.8	11.8	9.9
Wanted to have family	7.5	6.4	8.4	9.1	4.6	8.2
Was pregnant*	26.8	—	26.8	30.6	34.5	25.6
Became parent	14.7	7.7	21.0	19.6	21.0	12.4
Got married	21.1	3.7	19.7	13.4	2.0	15.1
Had to care for family member	11.9	9.5	14.0	8.5	14.7	10.7
Other:						
Wanted to travel	8.1	8.2	8.0	6.6	7.3	7.1
Friends dropped out	8.0	8.5	7.5	7.6	6.7	8.6
Had a drug and/or alcohol problem	4.4	6.1	2.8	1.8	2.1	5.9

—Not applicable.

* Females only.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988—Second Followup Survey, 1992, unpublished data.

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U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement. (1993, September). *Dropout rates in the United States: 1992.* Washington, DC: Author.

Table 8.—Rate, number, and distribution of status dropouts, by sex, race–ethnicity, income, region, and metropolitan status: October 1992

	Status dropout rate	Number of status dropouts (in thousands)	Population (in thousands)	Percent of all dropouts	Percent of population
Total	11.0	3,410	30,944	100.0	100.0
Sex					
Male	11.3	1,742	15,375	51.1	49.7
Female	10.7	1,668	15,569	48.9	50.3
Race–ethnicity[1]					
White, non-Hispanic	7.7	1,676	21,697	49.1	70.1
Black, non-Hispanic	13.7	621	4,527	18.2	14.6
Hispanic	29.4	1,022	3,476	30.0	11.2
Family income[2]					
Low income level	24.6	1,441	5,864	42.3	19.0
Middle income level	10.1	1,801	17,810	52.8	57.6
High income level	2.3	169	7,270	5.0	23.5
Region					
Northeast	8.6	501	5,845	14.7	18.9
Midwest	7.9	600	7,551	17.6	24.4
South	12.4	1,352	10,889	39.6	35.2
West	14.4	957	6,658	28.1	21.5
Metropolitan status					
Central city	13.4	1,327	9,918	38.9	32.1
Suburban	9.6	1,373	14,322	40.3	46.3
Nonmetropolitan	10.6	709	6,703	20.8	21.7

[1] Not shown separately are non-Hispanics who are neither black nor white, but who are included in the total.

[2] Family income in current residence. Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes for 1992; middle income is between 20 and 80 percent of all family incomes, and high income is the top 20 percent of all family incomes.

NOTE: Percentages may not sum to 100 percent due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, October 1992, unpublished data.

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Table 16.—Rate, number, and distribution of status dropouts, ages 16–24, by repetition of grade(s), by highest grade repeated: October 1992

	Status dropout rate	Number of status dropouts (in thousands)	Population (in thousands)	Percent of all dropouts	Percent of population
Total	11.0	3,410	30,944	100.0	100.0
Grade repetition[1]					
No grade repeated	9.4	2,356	25,176	69.1	81.4
Grade(s) repeated[2]	19.8	645	3,256	18.9	10.5
One only	16.8	410	2,441	12.0	7.9
Multiple	40.9	133	324	3.9	1.0
Grades repeated					
Repeated K–6	16.7	316	1,891	9.3	6.1
One only	15.6	278	1,783	8.2	5.8
Multiple	34.2	37	109	1.1	0.4
Repeated 7–9	34.1	236	693	6.9	2.2
One only	28.7	151	526	4.4	1.7
Multiple	51.2	86	168	2.5	0.5
Repeated 10–12	19.1	71	372	2.1	1.2
One only	17.6	55	312	1.6	1.0
Multiple	27.0	16	59	0.5	0.2

[1] Not shown separately are those who did not respond to this item, but who are included in the total.

[2] Not shown separately are those repeaters who did not identify the grade(s) repeated, but who are included in the total.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, October 1992, unpublished data.

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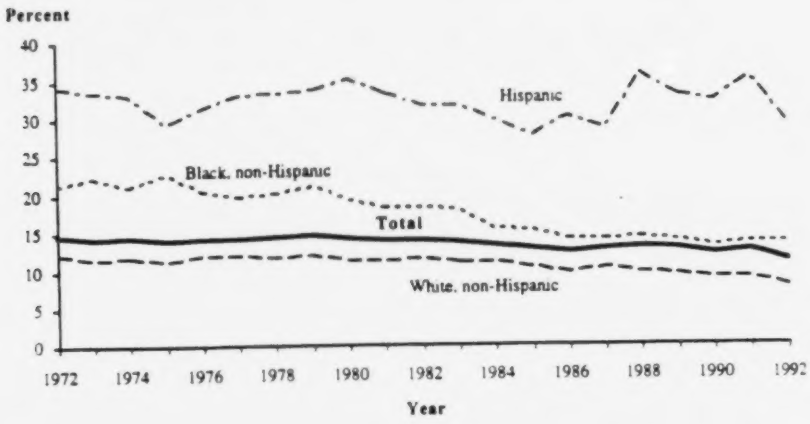
Figure B.—Status dropout rates for persons ages 16–24, by race–ethnicity: October 1972 through October 1992



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, October (various years), unpublished tabulations.

Table 15.—Rate, number, and distribution of status dropouts, ages 16–24, by disabling condition(s) affecting learning: October 1992

	Status dropout rate	Number of status dropouts (in thousands)	Population (in thousands)	Percent of all dropouts	Percent of population
Total	11.0	3,410	30,944	100.0	100.0
Disabling condition[1]					
No	10.2	2,807	27,452	82.3	88.7
Yes	19.8	231	1,167	6.8	3.8
Type of disabling condition					
Learning disability[2]	18.7	216	1156	6.3	3.7
Mental retardation	22.4	86	383	2.5	1.2
Speech impairment	13.2	65	491	1.9	1.6
Serious emotional disturbance	19.9	80	405	2.3	1.3
Deafness	10.3	25	238	0.7	0.8
Other hearing impairment	13.5	47	350	1.4	1.1
Blindness	16.2	35	215	1.0	0.7
Other vision impairment	8.6	54	633	1.6	2.0
Orthopedic impairment	12.3	53	435	1.6	1.4

[1] Not shown separately are those who did not respond to this item, but who are included in the total.

[2] The dropout rate for the 658,000 students with learning disability reported as the sole disabling condition is 16 percent (based on 105,000 dropouts).

NOTE: Percentages may not sum to 100 percent due to rounding, or to missing responses; percentages may also total more than 100 percent, due to the existence of multiple conditions.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, October 1992, unpublished data

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High School Dropout Statistics

- Fewer than 50% of dropouts find jobs after leaving school.
- Dropouts earn 60% less than high school graduates.
- Over a lifetime, dropouts earn $500,000 less than graduates.
- Dropouts use drugs twice as frequently as high school graduates.
- 4 out of 5 dropouts use drugs on a regular basis.
- Dropouts are not accepted into the military service.
- 80% of prison inmates are high school dropouts.
- 60% of adults on welfare do not have a high school diploma.
- Dropouts are 50% more likely to be on welfare than graduates.
- 23% of babies in the US today are born to unwed mothers.
- 40% of female dropouts leave school because of pregnancy.
- 50% of teen mothers who drop out do not return to school.
- 88% of female dropouts under 30 who head households live in poverty.
- Students who repeat a grade are 40% more likely to drop out.
- Students who repeat two grades are 90% more likely to drop out.

Source: National Dropout Prevention Center 1/91

Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #9

CHILDREN'S DEFENSE FUND

Youth Unemployment Rates, National Trends

	Total Unemployment Rates			Unemployment Rates, Youth Not Enrolled in School, Level of Education		
Year	All Ages	Age 16-19	Age 20-24	Less than Four Years of High School	High School Graduate Only	Four Years or More of College
1959	5.5%	14.6%	8.5%	n/a	n/a	n/a
1960	5.5	14.7	8.7	n/a	n/a	n/a
1961	6.7	16.8	10.4	n/a	n/a	n/a
1962	5.5	14.7	9.0	n/a	n/a	n/a
1963	5.7	17.2	8.8	n/a	n/a	n/a
1964	5.2	16.2	8.3	n/a	n/a	n/a
1965	4.5	14.8	6.7	n/a	n/a	n/a
1966	3.8	12.8	5.3	n/a	n/a	n/a
1967	3.8	12.9	5.7	n/a	n/a	n/a
1968	3.6	12.7	5.8	n/a	n/a	n/a
1969	3.5	12.2	5.7	n/a	n/a	n/a
1970	4.9	15.3	8.2	17.2%	9.9%	6.5%
1971	5.9	16.9	10.0	18.0	9.6	6.6
1972	5.6	16.2	9.3	16.8	9.5	7.2
1973	4.9	14.5	7.8	14.9	7.2	4.9
1974	5.6	16.0	9.1	19.2	9.8	5.0
1975	8.5	19.9	13.6	25.3	13.6	8.2
1976	7.7	19.0	12.0	24.7	12.1	7.1
1977	7.1	17.8	11.0	20.6	10.5	8.0
1978	6.1	16.4	9.6	18.8	8.8	6.3
1979	5.8	16.1	9.1	19.2	9.9	5.0
1980	7.1	17.8	11.5	25.3	12.5	5.9
1981	7.6	19.6	12.3	26.9	13.8	5.3
1982	9.7	23.2	14.9	31.8	17.3	9.2
1983	9.6	22.4	14.5	27.3	15.2	7.0
1984	7.5	18.9	11.5	25.8	11.8	5.9
1985	7.2	18.6	11.1	25.9	12.7	5.4
1986	7.0	18.3	10.7	24.3	11.5	4.8
1987	6.2	16.9	9.7	21.8	10.7	5.5
1988	5.5	15.3	8.7	20.0	10.1	4.8
1989	5.3	15.0	8.6	19.9	10.1	5.0
1990	5.5	15.5	8.8	20.0	10.4	5.2
1991	6.7	18.6	10.8	23.1	12.7	6.9
1992	7.4	20.0	11.3	24.9	13.9	6.5
Total percent change						
1970-1992	51.0%	30.7%	37.8%	44.8%	40.4%	0.0%
1980-1992	4.2	12.4	-1.7	-1.6	11.2	10.2
Average annual percent change						
1970-1992	2.3	1.4	1.7	2.0	1.8	0.0
1980-1992	0.4	1.0	-0.1	-0.1	0.9	0.9

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. Calculations by Children's Defense Fund.

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Children's Defense Fund. (1994). *The state of America's children.* Washington, DC: Author.

CHILDREN IN THE STATES

Percent of Births at Low Birthweight,* 1991

	All races		White		Black	
	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent	Rank
Alabama	8.7%	46	6.5%	43	13.0%	19
Alaska	4.7	1	4.5	1	7.7	1
Arizona	6.4	20	6.2	36	12.8	16
Arkansas	8.2	42	6.5	43	13.8	29
California	5.8	13	5.1	7	12.6	15
Colorado	8.2	42	7.7	51	15.4	41
Connecticut	6.9	25	5.7	22	14.2	31
Delaware	7.9	39	5.6	15	14.5	34
District of Columbia	15.4	51	5.6	15	17.9	42
Florida	7.4	33	5.9	29	12.4	12
Georgia	8.6	45	6.1	34	12.8	16
Hawaii	6.8	23	5.7	22	11.5	5
Idaho	5.8	13	5.7	22	—	—
Illinois	7.8	37	5.7	22	14.9	37
Indiana	6.7	22	6.0	31	12.4	12
Iowa	5.7	11	5.5	14	11.1	3
Kansas	6.2	19	5.6	15	12.1	9
Kentucky	7.2	29	6.6	46	12.3	10
Louisiana	9.4	49	6.1	34	13.8	29
Maine	5.4	7	5.4	11	—	—
Maryland	8.1	41	5.6	15	13.3	22
Massachusetts	5.9	15	5.4	11	10.2	2
Michigan	7.8	37	5.8	26	15.3	39
Minnesota	5.3	6	4.8	4	14.6	35
Mississippi	9.7	50	6.5	43	13.1	20
Missouri	7.5	35	6.2	36	13.7	26
Montana	5.6	9	5.6	15	—	—
Nebraska	5.6	9	5.2	8	11.7	6
Nevada	7.2	29	6.4	41	15.3	39
New Hampshire	4.9	3	4.8	4	—	—
New Jersey	7.4	33	5.8	26	13.7	26
New Mexico	7.1	27	7.1	50	12.9	18
New York	7.9	39	6.2	36	13.7	26
North Carolina	8.4	44	6.4	41	13.1	20
North Dakota	4.8	2	4.6	2	—	—
Ohio	7.5	35	6.2	36	14.3	33
Oklahoma	6.6	21	5.9	29	11.8	7
Oregon	4.9	3	4.7	3	12.5	14
Pennsylvania	7.3	32	5.8	26	15.2	38
Rhode Island	6.0	16	5.4	11	12.0	8
South Carolina	9.2	48	6.3	40	13.6	25
South Dakota	5.4	7	5.2	8	—	—
Tennessee	8.8	47	6.9	48	14.8	36
Texas	7.1	27	6.0	31	13.3	22
Utah	6.0	16	6.0	31	—	—
Vermont	5.7	11	5.6	15	—	—
Virginia	7.2	29	5.6	15	12.3	10
Washington	5.1	5	4.8	4	11.2	4
West Virginia	6.8	23	6.6	46	13.3	22
Wisconsin	6.1	18	5.2	8	14.2	31
Wyoming	7.0	26	7.0	49	—	—
United States	7.1%		5.8%		13.6%	

*Less than 5.5 pounds.
—Number too small to calculate a reliable rate.

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Center for Health Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States 1991 Vol. I—Natality*. Calculations by Children's Defense Fund.

CHILDREN IN THE STATES

Percent of Two-Year-Old Children Adequately Immunized,* 1988 and 1989

	1988 Percent	Rank	1989 Percent	Rank
Alabama	57.0%	22	58.5%	16
Alaska	52.7	28	59.7	14
Arizona	48.7	36	58.1	17
Arkansas	42.0	42	47.0	35
California	48.2	37	48.4	33
Colorado	60.8	12	61.7	11
Connecticut	65.9	5	63.6	8
Delaware	53.2	26	53.2	22
District of Columbia	38.7	45	48.0	34
Florida	49.3	35	50.8	27
Georgia	50.6	31	45.0	38
Hawaii	60.9	11	n/a	n/a
Idaho	49.4	34	53.8	21
Illinois**	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Indiana	56.0	24	52.0	25
Iowa	51.7	29	52.4	23
Kansas	58.4	14	52.4	23
Kentucky	60.3	13	59.4	15
Louisiana	58.0	18	58.0	18
Maine	65.3	6	70.1	3
Maryland	56.6	23	n/a	n/a
Massachusetts	64.9	8	69.3	5
Michigan	61.0	10	49.1	32
Minnesota	61.4	9	60.5	13
Mississippi	58.0	18	64.1	7
Missouri	44.1	40	49.3	31
Montana	53.2	26	n/a	n/a
Nebraska	65.0	7	n/a	n/a
Nevada	41.6	43	46.1	37
New Hampshire	78.9	1	70.3	2
New Jersey	50.2	33	49.5	30
New Mexico	54.8	25	65.4	6
New York**	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
North Carolina	58.1	16	n/a	n/a
North Dakota	58.3	15	n/a	n/a
Ohio	51.0	30	51.0	26
Oklahoma	44.1	40	50.0	29
Oregon	47.2	39	n/a	n/a
Pennsylvania	58.1	16	n/a	n/a
Rhode Island	67.6	4	63.5	9
South Carolina	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
South Dakota	n/a	n/a	61.4	12
Tennessee	69.5	2	69.5	4
Texas**	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Utah	41.3	44	46.5	36
Vermont	68.2	3	70.4	1
Virginia	57.8	21	58.0	18
Washington	50.5	32	54.6	20
West Virginia	48.1	38	50.3	28
Wisconsin**	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Wyoming	58.0	18	63.1	10

*Four doses of DPT, three doses of OPV, and one dose of MMR.

n/a—Data not available

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control. Ranks calculated by Children's Defense Fund

**Data not reported for these states because major cities are excluded from state figures.

Children Reported Abused or Neglected, Distribution by Race and Ethnicity, 1991

	Number reported	Total	White	Black	Latino	Native American	Asian/Pacific Islands	Other
Alabama	43,969	100.0%	61.5%	38.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.2%	—
Alaska	8,983	100.0	55.3	8.3	2.8	30.7	1.5	1.4%
Arizona	44,844	100.0	57.9	7.9	25.3	3.9	0.4	4.6
Arkansas	39,687	100.0	69.7	29.5	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1
California	416,757	100.0	53.2	12.1	29.3	0.6	3.3	1.5
Colorado	50,874	100.0	61.8	14.2	21.7	1.2	1.0	—
Connecticut	22,080	100.0	54.9	26.2	18.1	0.1	0.6	—
Delaware	7,941	100.0	51.5	42.9	4.2	0.0	0.1	1.3
District of Columbia	9,444	100.0	2.9	87.5	5.1	—	—	4.4
Florida	184,370	100.0	63.6	36.1	—	0.1	0.3	—
Georgia	68,057	100.0	51.6	45.1	1.2	0.1	0.3	1.8
Hawaii	5,017	100.0	17.7	3.9	0.4	0.9	50.0	27.1
Idaho	19,507	100.0	80.6	0.5	12.4	1.7	0.7	4.2
Illinois	117,912	100.0	45.7	46.4	6.3	0.1	0.3	1.2
Indiana	63,192	100.0	80.7	17.4	1.4	0.0	0.1	0.2
Iowa	27,553	100.0	86.7	9.4	1.7	1.3	0.5	0.4
Kansas	19,280	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kentucky	52,912	100.0	83.2	13.5	0.3	0.0	0.3	2.6
Louisiana	44,612	100.0	41.5	56.4	—	—	0.5	2.2
Maine	9,503	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Maryland	46,806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Massachusetts	58,218	100.0	58.2	19.6	15.6	0.1	1.6	4.9
Michigan	113,932	100.0	64.1	33.0	2.1	0.6	0.2	—
Minnesota	26,663	100.0	68.4	17.0	3.8	8.6	2.1	—
Mississippi	20,138	100.0	44.1	55.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Missouri	76,249	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Montana	11,029	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nebraska	17,087	100.0	78.6	11.6	4.8	4.5	0.5	—
Nevada	20,573	100.0	70.1	17.3	8.1	1.4	1.4	1.7
New Hampshire	10,480	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Jersey	53,750	100.0	36.6	44.5	16.3	0.1	0.7	1.8
New Mexico	18,234	100.0	40.4	2.9	44.8	11.8	0.2	—
New York	212,420	100.0	44.8	34.0	16.8	0.2	0.5	3.7
North Carolina	71,427	100.0	52.0	43.4	—	2.2	—	2.3
North Dakota	6,435	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ohio	144,218	100.0	67.0	28.4	1.2	0.1	0.2	3.0
Oklahoma	21,328	100.0	70.5	14.3	1.8	12.4	—	1.0
Oregon	37,648	100.0	83.0	6.0	6.6	2.9	1.4	—
Pennsylvania	23,861	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rhode Island	13,820	100.0	71.2	15.2	10.0	0.4	1.2	1.9
South Carolina	30,978	100.0	44.9	53.6	—	—	—	1.4
South Dakota	11,205	100.0	46.3	—	—	51.6	—	2.1
Tennessee	29,715	100.0	69.5	29.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.7
Texas	153,753	100.0	42.2	25.2	31.0	0.1	0.5	0.8
Utah	23,254	100.0	83.6	1.9	6.4	5.3	1.5	1.3
Vermont	2,689	100.0	98.4	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Virginia	50,732	100.0	55.3	37.4	2.9	0.0	0.4	4.0
Washington	59,311	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
West Virginia	22,221	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wisconsin	44,963	100.0	68.2	24.0	3.7	3.1	1.0	—
Wyoming	5,379	100.0	73.6	2.0	13.1	10.1	—	1.2
United States	2,695,010	100.0%	58.2%	27.9%	10.0%	1.4%	0.8%	1.7%

Note: States cannot be compared or ranked because of differing definitions and reporting requirements. Furthermore, only some of the states report unduplicated counts, and not all states report data for all the racial and ethnic groups.

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect. National Child Abuse and Neglect Data System. Working Paper 2. 1991 Summary Data Component. Calculations by Children's Defense Fund.

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CHILDREN'S DEFENSE FUND

Number of Children Living in Group Quarters Due to Own or Family Problems, by Reason, 1990

	Homelessness	Mental/ emotional	Abuse or neglect	Drug or alcohol	Adult corrections	Juvenile delinquency	Physical medical
Alabama	703	414	769	156	345	686	382
Alaska	134	93	86	93	1	172	19
Arizona	580	420	240	90	261	1,293	135
Arkansas	215	297	446	72	172	262	232
California	6,416	3,600	1,965	590	2,890	9,084	690
Colorado	476	738	183	69	81	801	109
Connecticut	1,531	763	298	108	270	428	174
Delaware	120	101	38	17	12	76	0
District of Columbia	1,118	87	65	16	213	54	151
Florida	1,648	1,475	888	465	2,267	1,544	589
Georgia	758	996	642	181	1,030	662	221
Hawaii	312	77	0	155	52	41	7
Idaho	185	153	60	86	44	280	73
Illinois	1,479	1,331	1,218	162	799	1,351	568
Indiana	679	828	1,316	116	357	1,109	191
Iowa	344	751	211	113	90	532	192
Kansas	383	719	325	28	323	269	101
Kentucky	422	528	263	101	178	515	153
Louisiana	413	979	272	207	680	1,113	278
Maine	106	12	96	63	21	283	25
Maryland	812	968	310	45	516	1,007	221
Massachusetts	1,693	1,244	625	107	136	453	362
Michigan	983	1,328	549	44	592	2,293	254
Minnesota	429	655	167	323	303	821	218
Mississippi	223	306	269	60	114	562	133
Missouri	725	1,000	1,000	166	344	735	261
Montana	106	85	48	22	11	285	16
Nebraska	117	275	653	63	94	280	79
Nevada	160	173	199	18	292	359	64
New Hampshire	84	62	86	111	2	183	73
New Jersey	2,529	636	187	166	319	990	171
New Mexico	184	135	279	94	114	267	165
New York	8,305	4,220	1,495	378	1,751	2,846	1,013
North Carolina	529	1,008	1,056	79	533	580	402
North Dakota	50	69	95	22	10	318	96
Ohio	1,100	1,240	1,168	135	176	3,402	318
Oklahoma	614	622	316	255	147	468	144
Oregon	610	384	182	118	60	718	50
Pennsylvania	2,305	1,879	1,212	320	281	3,161	336
Rhode Island	114	56	127	13	3	243	7
South Carolina	321	399	739	18	203	1,082	275
South Dakota	150	96	194	11	56	326	114
Tennessee	506	1,171	886	184	168	947	374
Texas	2,116	3,567	2,939	733	1,264	2,271	544
Utah	112	644	0	21	30	452	40
Vermont	32	29	95	1	3	14	3
Virginia	816	992	518	88	171	1,832	354
Washington	1,061	432	159	114	177	1,071	173
West Virginia	185	58	177	32	77	228	169
Wisconsin	488	1,034	243	135	109	1,085	97
Wyoming	95	101	53	20	22	210	0
United States	45,576	39,230	25,407	6,784	18,164	50,044	10,816

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population and Housing, special Group Quarters tabulation.

CHILDREN IN THE STATES

Head Start

	Eligible children 1992	Head Start slots FY 1993	Percent served
Alabama	40,119	14,106	35.2%
Alaska	3,886	1,143	29.4
Arizona	38,902	9,189	23.6
Arkansas	25,418	8,792	34.6
California	242,598	67,684	27.9
Colorado	24,126	7,672	31.8
Connecticut	14,403	5,561	38.6
Delaware	3,471	1,453	41.9
District of Columbia	5,140	2,841	55.3
Florida	92,307	25,333	27.4
Georgia	58,917	18,594	31.6
Hawaii	5,609	2,183	38.9
Idaho	8,590	1,850	21.5
Illinois	86,810	30,268	34.9
Indiana	36,136	11,107	30.7
Iowa	18,166	5,758	31.7
Kansas	17,223	5,389	31.3
Kentucky	37,871	13,791	36.4
Louisiana	61,392	18,677	30.4
Maine	7,403	3,361	45.4
Maryland	22,931	8,338	36.4
Massachusetts	32,400	10,929	33.7
Michigan	82,980	29,960	36.1
Minnesota	27,222	8,167	30.0
Mississippi	38,211	24,036	62.9
Missouri	40,504	13,592	33.6
Montana	7,750	2,226	28.7
Nebraska	11,131	3,465	31.1
Nevada	7,359	1,593	21.6
New Hampshire	3,894	1,131	29.0
New Jersey	33,772	12,773	37.8
New Mexico	20,790	6,055	29.1
New York	139,125	37,829	27.2
North Carolina	47,164	15,296	32.4
North Dakota	5,130	1,653	32.2
Ohio	89,341	32,567	36.5
Oklahoma	30,674	10,625	34.6
Oregon	20,860	4,431	21.2
Pennsylvania	75,178	24,866	33.1
Rhode Island	5,923	2,380	40.2
South Carolina	31,454	9,709	30.9
South Dakota	7,053	1,894	26.9
Tennessee	42,883	13,859	32.3
Texas	192,750	49,110	25.5
Utah	14,487	3,822	26.4
Vermont	3,037	1,260	41.5
Virginia	34,567	10,650	30.8
Washington	33,429	7,799	23.3
West Virginia	18,415	6,317	34.3
Wisconsin	34,609	11,207	32.4
Wyoming	3,489	1,245	35.7
United States	1,987,000	713,903	35.9%

Note: The number of eligible children is estimated using data from the 1990 Census and the March 1991 Current Population Survey. These figures represent the number of poor three- and four-year-olds.

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Head Start Bureau.

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Adolescent Childbearing, 1980 and 1990

	Teen birth rate*		Percent change, 1980-1990
	1980	1990	
Alabama	70.2	73.0	4.0%
Alaska	64.8	66.4	2.5
Arizona	66.6	76.9	15.5
Arkansas	76.3	82.1	7.6
California	54.0	72.0	33.3
Colorado	50.3	55.4	10.1
Connecticut	31.0	39.7	28.1
Delaware	52.1	56.3	8.1
District of Columbia	65.2	96.8	48.5
Florida	60.1	71.0	18.1
Georgia	74.2	77.5	4.4
Hawaii	51.1	61.9	21.1
Idaho	60.1	51.1	-15.0
Illinois	56.9	64.5	13.4
Indiana	58.3	59.6	2.2
Iowa	43.4	40.8	-6.0
Kansas	57.3	56.9	-.7
Kentucky	73.6	68.9	-6.4
Louisiana	77.7	76.7	-1.3
Maine	47.9	43.2	-9.8
Maryland	44.5	55.0	23.6
Massachusetts	28.4	35.7	25.7
Michigan	45.7	60.3	31.9
Minnesota	35.7	37.0	3.6
Mississippi	86.6	84.3	-2.7
Missouri	58.8	64.0	8.8
Montana	48.8	48.8	0
Nebraska	45.5	43.1	-5.3
Nevada	59.7	74.9	25.5
New Hampshire	33.9	33.2	-2.1
New Jersey	36.1	41.5	15.0
New Mexico	72.8	79.7	9.5
New York	35.5	44.6	25.6
North Carolina	58.9	69.2	17.5
North Dakota	42.0	35.5	-15.5
Ohio	53.2	59.0	10.9
Oklahoma	75.7	67.8	-10.4
Oregon	51.6	55.5	7.6
Pennsylvania	41.1	46.0	11.9
Rhode Island	33.4	44.7	33.8
South Carolina	66.8	73.3	9.7
South Dakota	52.8	47.3	-10.4
Tennessee	65.4	73.9	13.0
Texas	75.8	77.1	1.7
Utah	65.7	49.0	-25.4
Vermont	39.8	34.2	-14.1
Virginia	49.2	54.2	10.2
Washington	47.3	54.0	14.2
West Virginia	68.7	58.1	-15.4
Wisconsin	39.9	43.4	8.8
Wyoming	79.5	56.6	-28.8
United States	53.0	59.9	13.0%

*Births per 1,000 young women ages 15-19

Source: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Center for Health Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States 1991*, Vol. 1—Natality; and U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population and Housing, Summary Tape File 1. Calculations by Children's Defense Fund.

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Activity 2 Handout: Jigsaw Data #10

USA

United States Profile

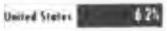
Background Information*

Population under age 18	63,604,432	Percent population under age 18	25.6%
Minority population under age 18	19,678,741	Percent population under age 18 that is minority	30.9%
Children ages 5-17 who do not speak English at home	6,322,934	Percent children ages 5-17 who do not speak English at home	13.9%

Women in labor force with youngest child under age 6	9,095,156	Percent women with youngest child under age 6 who are in the labor force	59.7%
Women in labor force with youngest child ages 6-17	12,367,705	Percent women with youngest child ages 6-17 who are in the labor force	75.0%
Children under age 6 with both or only parent in the labor force	12,043,581	Percent children under age 6 with both or only parent in labor force	54.9%
Children under age 18 with both or only parent in the labor force	38,864,215	Percent children under age 18 with both or only parent in the labor force	61.1%
Children under age 18 who are not living with a parent	2,727,451	Percent children under age 18 who are not living with a parent	4.3%

Median income of families with children in 1991	$34,175
Percent of mother headed families receiving child support or alimony in 1991	31.4%
AFDC and Food Stamp benefits as percent of poverty line in 1993	64.6%
Percent of children without health insurance in 1991	12.6%
Percent of children living in overcrowded housing	16.1%
Percent of children living in houses without complete plumbing or kitchen facilities	1.2%

Percent of children living in severely distressed neighborhoods



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* Statistics are based on 1990 data unless otherwise indicated. See Definitions and Data Sources, page 155.

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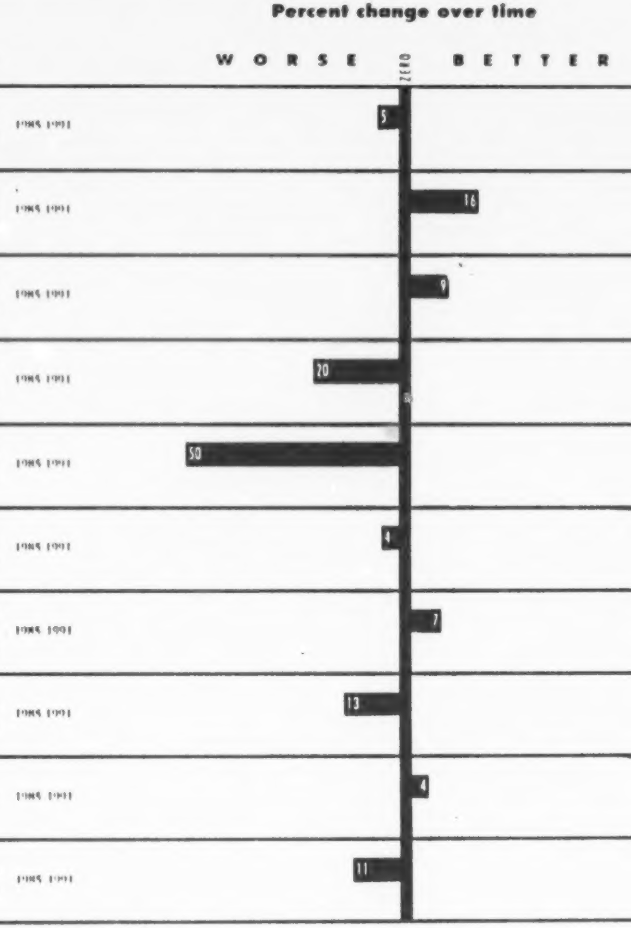
The Annie E. Casey Foundation. (1994). *Kids count data book.* Baltimore, MD: Author.

United States Profile

USA



Indicators*	Trend data 1985	Trend data 1991
Percent low birth weight babies	6.8	7.1
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)	10.6	8.9
Child death rate Ages 1-14 (per 100,000 children)	33.8	30.7
Percent of all births that are to single teens	7.5	9.0
Juvenile violent crime arrest rate Ages 10-17 (per 100,000 youths)	305	457
Percent graduating from high school on time	71.6	68.8
Percent teens not in school and not in labor force Ages 16-19	5.3	5.0
Teen violent death rate Ages 15-19 (per 100,000 teens)	62.8	71.1
Percent children in poverty	20.8	20.0
Percent children in single parent families	22.7	25.1

* See Definitions and Data Sources, page 155

■ Solid bars indicate national change

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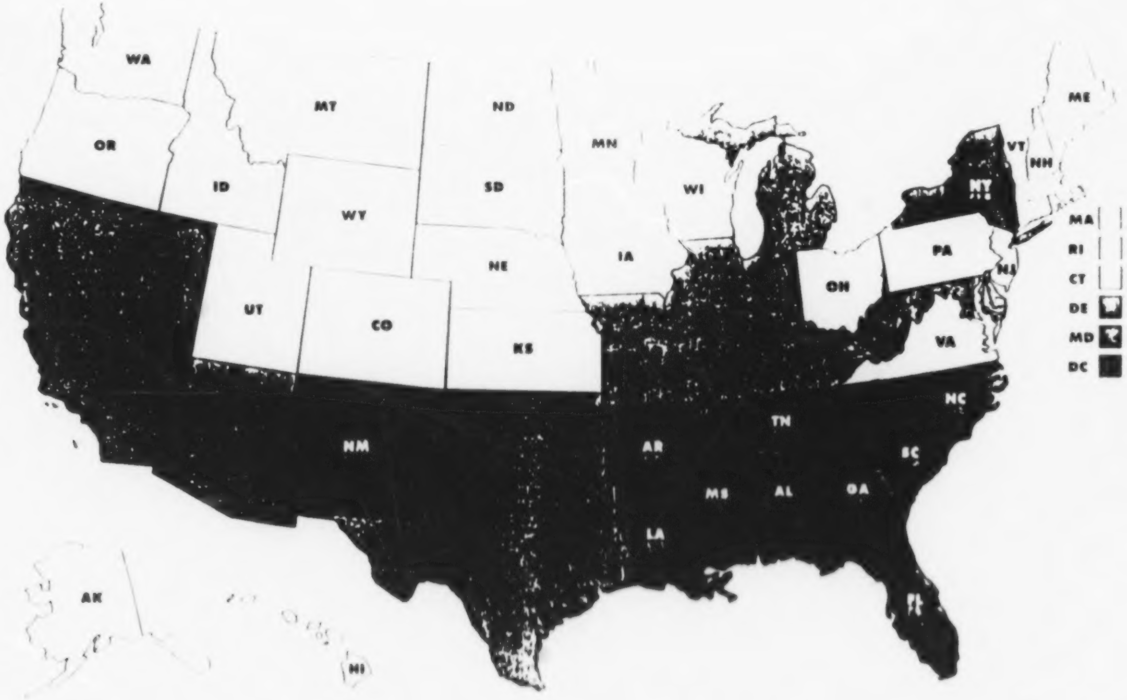
National Indicator Map: State Rates

National Composite Ranks

1994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A state's National Composite Rank is determined by the sum of a state's standings on each of ten measures of the condition of children arranged in sequential order from highest/best (1) to the lowest/worst (51). The measures include: percent low birth-weight babies, infant mortality rate, child death rate, percent of all births that are to single teens, juvenile violent crime arrest rate, percent graduating from high school on time, percent teens not in school and not in labor force, teen violent death rate, percent children in poverty, and percent children in single-parent families.

☐ Rank 1–13
☐ Rank 14–26
▨ Rank 27–39
■ Rank 40–51

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Describing Marginal Learners

As a group, categorize the perceptions of marginal learners generated in discussion using one or more of these questions.

Which statements reflect the **cognitive or ability/ achievement characteristics** of marginal learners?

Which statements reflect the **affective or beliefs/ attitudes characteristics** of marginal learners?

Which statements might be related to **changing demographic factors** that the region is experiencing?

Which statements might be related to **family-related issues** that the student might be experiencing?

Which statements might be related to **peer influence forces** that the student cannot resolve?

Which statements might be related to **school-related factors** that the student is experiencing?

Which statements might be related to **student difficulties** that may require special needs assessment and assistance?

Which statements might be related to **economic conditions** that the student is experiencing?

Which statements might be related to **individual characteristics of the student as a learner**?

Identifying Characteristics of Potential Dropouts and Dropouts in Your School District

Listed below are characteristics of students who drop out of school. Please check (✓) all characteristics that describe potential dropouts and dropouts in **your** school district.

The student has/had...

______ poor grades overall
______ low reading scores
______ low mathematics scores
______ failure in other schools
______ low perceptual performance in one or more areas
______ verbal deficiency
______ gifted/talented abilities
______ been bored with school
______ been retained in at least one grade
______ lack of identity with school
______ expressed feelings of not belonging in school
______ poor social adjustment
______ poor social or emotional actions; appeared disturbed
______ generally not accepted by staff
______ been much more mobile than others
______ generally not been accepted by peers
______ low socio-economic status/serious family problems
______ frequent health problems
______ alcohol or drug use/abuse problems
______ racial or ethnic minority background
______ father/parent absent from home
______ lack of motivation, direction, and drive
______ little or no extra-curricular participation
______ low or inappropriate self-concept
______ frequent tardiness
______ frequent absenteeism
______ frequent truancy
______ no future orientation
______ immature, suggestive, easily distracted behaviors
______ inability to tolerate structured activities
______ inability to identify with others
______ inability to relate to authority figures
______ failed to see relevance of education to life experiences
______ inability to relate to authority figures
______ inability to function properly within traditional classroom
______ disruptive behaviors
______ rebellious attitudes towards authority
______ family with low educational level and expectations
______ non-English speaking home
______ siblings or parents who have been dropouts
______ excessively stressful home
______ poor communication between home and school
______ been emotionally neglected
______ been physically/sexually abused
______ contacts with police
______ loss of family member/friend
______ other (please describe)
____
____

Adapted from Dougherty, B. & Palm, J. (n.d.). *The Vocational Studies Center*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events

Levels of Seriousness	*Events*	*Examples*
1. **Testing** [Circumventing legitimate means]	First deviations Light penalties Improvement assumed Repeated deviations	Stretch truth Search for exceptions Manipulate parents "Brown nose" Cheat on tests Copy homework "Forget" notes from home Purchase term papers Plagiarize papers "Borrow" others' belongings Bite Spit Taunt other children (non-publicly)
2. **Coasting** [Going through the motions with little expectation of success]	Question school goals as being realistic, attainable, meaningful Likelihood of improvement questioned Stalemate accepted Often overlooked by school personnel	Take tests, but do not finish Attend class, but do not participate Seek help only when forced Seldom initiate questions Use school as a cover to pursue other interests Join groups reluctantly Play with others, but do not interact Turn in incomplete assignments or none Do not pay attention Do poor class work

Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events

Levels of Seriousness	*Events*	*Examples*
3. **Retreating** [Reluctance to maintain a facade of acceptable behavior]	Reject school goals and available means for learning Try on the marginal role, cling to peers for support Stigmatized and punished by peers and teachers Sometimes overlooked if not a discipline problem Create opposing goals and means	Truant Cut classes Chronically tardy Smoke in bathrooms Hang out under stairwells, etc. Frequently suspended from school Ignore advice, directives, and offers of assistance Daydream, do not pay attention Act shy and fearful Refuse to participate in group work Refuse to talk
4. **Rebelling** [Sustained and planned efforts to strike back]	Engage in sustained and planned efforts to strike back Feel pressured to repeat or extend the antisocial behavior	Vandalize Fight, assault others, use verbal abuse Have outbursts, tantrums Use or sell drugs and alcohol on school property Defy authority Commit arson Carry a weapon to school Do not cooperate Refuse to put toys/belongings away Destroy the work/possessions of others

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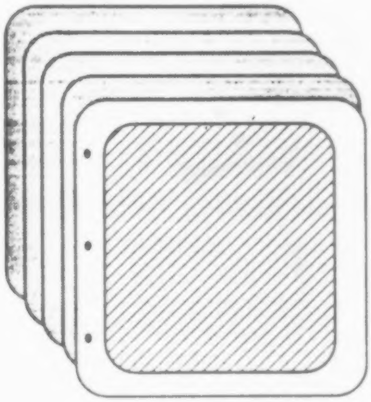
Adapted from Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal*, p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Lally, J. R. (Ed.). (1990). *Infant/toddler caregiving: A guide to social-emotional growth and socialization.* Sacramento, CA: California Department of Education.

Working with Marginal Learners: Some Enigmas

• Failed one or more subjects	But	may do well in one or two classes where the subject or teacher is liked
• Frequently cited for attitude and conduct problems in class	But	may read, hear, or see a broader range of intellectual stimuli than their classmates
• Welcome challenge and adventure outside of school	But	do not engage in class activities or complete homework
• May demonstrate original thinking and problem solving	But	have poor organizational skills and trouble getting started on tasks
• May be imaginative and verbal	But	can't write
• Can discuss experiences, people, and emotions	But	can't remember homework assignments
• Can demonstrate a complex sequence of steps or operations	But	have trouble listening and following directions
• Behind in acquiring credits for graduation	But	are often tardy, truant, or under the influence of drugs or alcohol
• May develop strong loyalties and bonds with one or two teachers	But	may rebel against all other school authority figures and rules (i.e., smoking, cutting classes, profanity)



Transparencies

Module 1 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Identify characteristics of marginal learners.
2. Describe a variety of conditions leading to marginal learning performance.
3. Analyze indicators of growing risk for children and youth.
4. Develop a shared definition of marginality.

Case Studies: Conclusions

1. What sources of marginal learning behaviors were illustrated in these cases?

2. What additional sources of marginal learning behaviors might be illustrated through specific examples you know about?

3. What trends or patterns, if any, were evidenced in the suggestions for intervention developed by the groups?

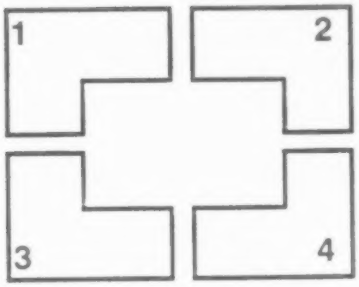
4. What additional questions about marginal learners were raised by this activity?

Sources of Marginal Learner Behaviors

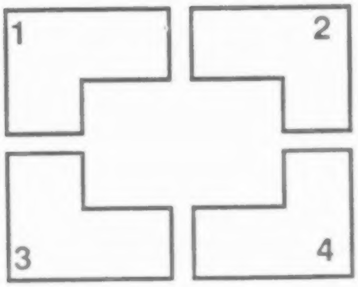
1. Conflict of expectations between home and school.
2. Pressures from adolescent culture.
3. Conflict with curriculum, instruction, organization, policies, and procedures of school.
4. Individual capacities and characteristics.

Sinclair, R. L. & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

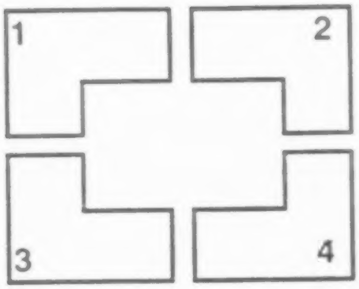
Jigsaw Exercise



(1) "Home" Group



(2) "Expert" Group



(3) "Home" Group

1–4 = number of topics for study

Views on Marginality

On the fringes of school there is a shadow population of students whose motivation and achievement are stymied. These are the young people who are not being well served by the American public schools. These are the students who have been forced into the margins. The strained relationship that they develop with the educational environment leads others to view them as deviant individuals, either temporarily on the fringes or perhaps permanently out of the mainstream. The environment for learning ceases to be accessible to these students who are having difficulties. As marginal learners, they fail to achieve full and satisfying involvement in school.

Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, p. 41. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Views on Marginality

The term marginal student does not refer to any set of characteristics based on intelligence or social class. Instead, the category of marginal student includes a broad range of adolescents, some bright and others less so, who find themselves unsuccessful, unhappy, and even unwelcome in school.

Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student (Fastback No. 197)*, p. 7. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc.

Views on Marginality

To be marginal is to experience a strained, difficult relationship with educational conditions that have been organized to promote learning. Because the curriculum, instruction, and school organization do not contribute readily to the learning of marginal students, these young people can become disconnected from conditions that were intended to foster academic skills and competencies.

Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events

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Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events

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Adapted from Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal*, p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Lally, J. R. (Ed.). (1990). *Infant/toddler caregiving: A guide to social-emotional growth and socialization.* Sacramento, CA: California Department of Education.

Focus of Concern

- Warning Signs
- Sources of Conflict
- Levels of Seriousness

Parents/Guardians

Teachers/Aides

Administrators

Interventions

Programs

Social Services

School

District

State

MODULE 2

Motivating Marginal Learners

Educators who hope to help young people value achievement and become active, involved learners can be more effective in their influence if they see motivation as a function of need fulfillment. Several of the conditions necessary for effective learning are schoolwide in nature and not produced simply by one or two teachers working by themselves. There are likely to be some elements of the school organization and governance systems that are beyond the immediate influence of the classroom teacher. However, there are well-defined, research-based practices that classroom teachers can employ to improve the quality of their daily interactions with students. These practices have been shown to be related to increased student motivation and participation in class and increased student achievement on content-based tests. This module will focus on examining and demonstrating specific motivational techniques to use with marginal learners.

Module 2. Motivating Marginal Learners Training Agenda for Focused Workshop

(2 hours and 50 minutes or 3 hours and 35 minutes with optional Activity 4)

Time Required

10 minutes	Activity 1	Introductions and Expectations—group activity
25 minutes	Activity 2	Testing Premises for Dialogue and Action—quiz and small group activity
20 minutes	Activity 3	Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy—lecturette and individual needs assessment
35 minutes	Activity 4	Three Teachers: Case Examples in Student Motivation—small group activity
Optional or Alternative		
45 minutes	Activity 4	Video Viewing and Discussion *Good Morning Miss Toliver*—group activity
10 minutes	Break	
30 minutes	Activity 5	Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement Fishbowl—small group activity
15 minutes	Activity 6	Using the Teacher-Student Communication Questionnaire—small group activity
15 minutes	Activity 7	Motivating Marginal Learners—lecturette and discussion
5 minutes	Activity 8	Resource Review
5 minutes	Activity 9	Wrap-up and Evaluation

170 minutes without optional Activity 4

215 minutes with optional Activity 4

Trainer's Instructions

Trainer's Notes

Activity 1. Introductions and Expectations

Materials needed:

Transparency:	*Module 2 Objectives*
Handout:	*Motivating Marginal Learners*
Other:	Flip chart, marker

Ask participants to introduce themselves and to state a desired expectation or outcome from the workshop. Record these on flip chart paper. Expectations that can be included in the program should be noted. Expectations beyond the scope of the workshop or relating to another module should be indicated as such. To provide focus, distribute and review the introductory remarks on the handout *Module 2: Motivating Marginal Learners.* Share workshop objectives by reviewing the transparency *Module 2 Objectives.* Assess group needs from the introductory comments and adjust trainer remarks and examples to them.

Activity 2. Testing Premises for Dialogue and Action

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Premises for Dialogue and Action: A True-False Quiz* *Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars*
Transparencies:	*Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars*
Other:	Flip chart paper, markers, index cards

Distribute the participant handout *Premises for Dialogue and Action: A True-False Quiz.* Ask participants to complete the 10-item quiz based on how they, as individuals, regard each statement, and how they think their district colleagues would respond. Allow about 5 minutes.

Discuss each quiz item with the group, presenting the consensus response of researchers and scholars found on the handout of the same name. Distribute the handout after the discussion, if preferred. You may wish to use a transparency, *Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars*, as an outline. Some of the items may challenge cherished beliefs and local traditions long held and reinforced by the culture of the district. Discuss the use of the quiz in participants' schools as an awareness activity for staff, students, and/or community members.

To lead into Activities 3 and 4, ask participants to form table groups of six to eight for Tellaround. Distribute index cards, flip chart paper, and markers to each group. Ask each group to select a recorder and reporter. Based on the 10 items discussed and the consensus of researchers and scholars, participants should reflect on and share classroom practices they have found successful for motivating students. Each participant should record on the index card one motivational practice and the reason they believe it was successful. Small group members then tell about the successful practices by taking turns around the table in a clockwise direction. Allow about 10 minutes for small group sharing. The recorder writes responses on flip chart paper and the reporter then shares ideas during report out to the total group. Post the flip chart papers for further reference in Activities 3 and 4.

Activity 3. Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy: Individual Needs Assessment

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Glasser's Control Theory Needs* *Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception* *Glasser's Control Theory* *Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy* *Student Evaluation of Psychological Needs*
Transparencies:	*Glasser's Control Theory Needs* *Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception*

Using overhead transparencies and handouts—*Glasser's Control Theory Needs* and *Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception*—and a background reading, "Glasser's Control Theory," present a brief (3–5 minute) overview of Glasser's theory of motivation. Ask participants to consider the motivational practices generated on flip chart paper in Activity 2 as related to Glasser's five basic needs: love and belonging, power, fun, freedom, and survival. You may wish to ask participant groups to quickly categorize a few of their suggested practices by Glasser's five areas of need and mark their flip chart list accordingly.

The individual assessment, introduced in this activity and based on Glasser's control theory, was developed to help individuals gain insight into the degree to which they are satisfying their own basic needs and to evaluate whether they are satisfying those needs in a balanced way.

Distribute the handout *Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy,* and allow about 10 minutes for participants to complete the assessment. Upon completion, invite participants to volunteer any reactions to the instrument. Did it help them understand the five basic needs? To stress the validity of the five needs, ask if any of the participants would be able to delete any need area listed on the assessment from their lives for a year without experiencing major discomfort.

Refer to *Student Evaluation of Psychological Needs* (a participant handout) and explain that it may be used as the basis of a discussion in classrooms to explore ways in which students feel they are either able or unable to satisfy their needs in school. Ask participants to compare it to the adult version for differences in wording. Educators can use assessment results to focus on areas of need and to address specific types of motivation/assistance for marginal learners.

The next activity will examine teacher and student behaviors in four case studies. Scenarios depict behaviors that can be helpful in understanding and addressing the needs of marginal learners.

Activity 4. Three Teachers Case Examples in Student Motivation

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Three Teachers*
Transparency:	*Glasser's Control Theory Needs* (optional)
Other:	Flip chart, marker, blank overhead transparencies, trans Transparency marker

Using an excerpt *Three Teachers* (see Background Readings, Module 8), by Theodore Sizer (Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1984) from *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School,* conduct the following activity.

Ask participants to organize into discussion groups of five to six members. Assign to each group a different section of the chapter. If you know the make-up of the group, or the level or subject matter taught by individual participants ahead of time, you might assign the cases more strategically. The page numbers and cases follow.

Sister Michael	pp. 143-145	12th grade English teacher
Charles Gross	pp. 146-148	10th grade vocational teacher
Fred Curtis	pp. 148-150	9th grade mathematics teacher

Briefly review the lists of motivational practices generated in Activity 2 and *Glasser's Control Theory Needs* from Activity 3 to provide focus for study of the teacher cases. You might ask participants to match those practices to the three teachers as most characteristic of one or more of the three. Participants might look for similar practices, or the absence of them, in each case description. In addition, participants might analyze the three teachers' behaviors based upon Glasser's needs to determine which needs are being met. Ask each group to read its case description silently, then engage in a short discussion. Have each group generate and note a list of key words and phrases that describe the characteristics and behaviors of the teacher.

Next, convene the participants and call upon each group to summarize its case, describe their reactions to it, and list the key words and phrases that capture the characteristics and behaviors of the teacher. The trainer records the key words and phrases on flip chart paper. Anticipated responses to the teacher cases are given below.

Sister Michael

Used Socratic methods
Experienced
Stressed precision
Digressed when student contributed words or ideas
Checked with others to confirm/disconfirm viewpoints
No remark got lost; all acknowledged
Demonstrated sensitivity
Used good judgment

Charles Gross

Taught all minority students
Taught basic skills/saleable trade
Successful in retaining students until 11th grade
Friendly, no-nonsense, optimistic
Students had to show and tell him what and why
Precise, logical, clear expression
Stressed practical applications

Fred Curtis

Used visual and auditory methods
Divided class into work groups
Initiated and guided two exercises simultaneously
Made students think and problem solve
Positive reinforcement
Encouraged self-assessment
"Are you better off than five minutes ago?"

Finally, engage the group in some additional reflection on the three teachers. Write one or more questions on a blank overhead transparency. **Discussion starter questions** might include:

1. **What are some of the expectations–for–learning messages sent by the behaviors of these successful teachers?**

   Anticipated responses:

   Learning isn't necessarily easy. It can be complex, it requires effort, and it may require changing your views or trying the unfamiliar.

   Learning can be focused and made efficient.

   The key worker is the student. The key outcome is what he/she achieves.

   The role of the teacher is to help students think.

2. **What characteristics do all of these teachers share?**

   Anticipated responses:

   Commitment
   Dedication
   Adaptability
   Judgment
   Approachability

3. **What interventions appealed to you? What student or teacher strategies would be applicable to your classroom?**

   Responses will vary.

4. **How would each teacher assist or deal with marginal learners?**

   Responses will differ with participant perceptions of each teacher.

Additional Example to Use in Three Teachers Case Examples in Student Motivation (Optional)

Use an excerpt from Section 3 of *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School* by Theodore Sizer (Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1984.) Assign the case of Melissa (pages 161-163 of *Horace's Comrpomise* included in Module 8 Background Readings) to one group to read. Engage participants in discussion of the questions on the next page. With the addition of this example, the trainer will have provided examples of characteristics and behaviors of three successful teachers and one marginal learner.

Questions to ask about the case of Melissa:

1. Why does Melissa dodge engagement with school?

   Anticipated responses:

   She is not required to be engaged. Ms. Romagna didn't press her.

   There was no connection made between Donne's world and Melissa's.

   Maybe she is scared. Risking failure in front of the class and teachers can be painful.

   Melissa knows that in order to graduate, all she has to do is show up regularly and listen in class most of the time.

2. How could Ms. Romagna motivate Melissa to engage with school?

   Anticipated responses:

   Get the incentives right.

   Let her succeed at tasks she is capable of—success breeds success.

   Attract her ideas and viewpoints—people learn best from what they value as their own.

   Get the level of difficulty right—don't ask too much or too little.

   Gain her respect so that she will want to learn.

   Threaten and punish sparingly.

Alternative Activity 4. Teachers Who Motivate

Ask three volunteer participants to describe in detail the methods of a teacher each has found particularly motivating. Record these characteristics on flip chart paper or a blank transparency. Engage the group in discussion using the starter questions listed in Activity 4, "Three Teachers."

Explain that in the next activity (Activity 5) participants will examine research-based practices which can assist students such as Melissa and may be similar to what these three teachers employed.

Alternative Activity 4 or Alternative Activity 3. Video Viewing and Discussion: Good Morning Miss Toliver

Materials needed:

Handout: *Good Morning Miss Toliver: Guiding Questions for Discussion*

Other: *Good Morning Miss Toliver* (videotape)
Flip chart, marker

The 27-minute videotape, *Good Morning Miss Toliver* (1993), can be ordered in advance from the Foundation for Advancements in Science and Education (FASE) for $14.95 plus $5.00 shipping and handling by calling 213/937-9911. Each additional tape costs $14.95 plus 50 cents shipping and handling. Institutional purchase orders are accepted. Or write FASE, 4801 Wilshire Boulevard, Suite 215, Los Angeles, CA 90010.

Background

Good Morning Miss Toliver illustrates how a Presidential Award winner, Kay Toliver, combines math and communication arts skills to inspire and motivate her students. Set in New York City's East Harlem Tech/Public School 72, the program features candid interviews with Kay, her students, and colleagues that highlight an engaging look at her classroom in action. The class is also followed on the "Math Trail," where they gain a new appreciation of their environment by creating math problems that relate to the East Harlem community. This behind-the-scenes documentary shows how Miss Toliver inspires and motivates her students in spite of formidable competition from television, video games, rap music, and the hustlers on East Harlem corners.

Introduce the video by summarizing the background information for participants and posing seven guiding questions for viewing. Distribute the handout, *Good Morning Miss Toliver: Guiding Questions for Discussion.* Allow 30 minutes for viewing and 10–15 minutes for discussion. To reduce the distraction of writing responses during viewing, it may be helpful to assign one question to each table group and to ask each to report out to the total group after viewing. Record participant responses to the guiding questions on a flip chart and summarize findings about motivating students.

Explain that in the next activity participants will examine research-based practices that can assist students such as Melissa and may be similar to what the three teachers in Activity 3 employed.

Activity 5. Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement: Fishbowl

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement: Fishbowl Activity*
Transparency:	*Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement*
Other:	Blank transparency and transparency marker or flip chart and marker

Distribute the participant handout *Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement: Fishbowl Activity*, and use the overhead transparency with a list of numbered behaviors (*Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement*) to make assignments. The handout describes 10 specific, measurable, observable teacher behaviors which have been found to improve the quality of teacher-student interaction and to contribute to increased student achievement gains in tests of basic skills. Implications for interventions follow each behavior description in this summary from the Gender Expectation and Student Achievement program (GESA).

The GESA program seeks to produce equal interest and achievement in mathematics, reading, and language arts in boys and girls in classrooms of teachers receiving GESA training. It attempts to reduce gender stereotyping, to increase nonstereotypical interaction with students, and to equalize the frequency of interactions with boys and girls.

Fishbowl Directions—(See handout, *Teacher Behavior and Student Achievement: Fishbowl Activity*)

Participants will divide into five groups, each appointing a reporter and a recorder. Assign two of the 10 behaviors to each group. Members of each group analyze two behaviors and devise a classroom intervention for each based on the implications given. The recorders note findings and group decisions. Allow about 15 minutes for group work. Group reporters form the "fishbowl" in the middle of the room by placing five chairs in a circle. The rest of the participants remain at tables. Group reporters proceed to share and discuss findings from their small groups with the total group. Other group members may make notes as information is provided during the discussion. Record key phrases from discussion on a blank transparency or flip chart. Group members wishing to contribute information or pose a question may communicate the desire to enter the fishbowl by standing behind the seat of their group representative. Comments may **not** be added from outside the fishbowl.

The trainer should demonstrate the process of entering the fishbowl by posing a question or adding a comment, to encourage others to do the same. Encourage others to join the fishbowl to share new information about improving student–teacher interactions or to relieve a team mate until all 10 teacher behaviors have been discussed. To provide closure, summarize findings and address concerns and questions.

Point out to participants that the next activity will explore ways to improve classroom communications through the use of a measure of student satisfaction with the amount and nature of student–teacher interaction.

Activity 6. Using the Teacher Student Communication Questionnaire

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Teacher Student Communication Questionnaire*

Distribute the handout *Teacher Student Communication Questionnaire*—a teacher-developed measure of student satisfaction with the amount and nature of student-teacher interaction. To familiarize participants with its content, ask natural partners (seated next to each other) to pose questions to each other, alternating the 10 sections. Discuss its use by teachers on a voluntary basis, pointing out that the Questionnaire provides a confidential means for teachers seeking to improve classroom communications.

In conclusion, explain that workshop modules 3 through 6 will explore ways schools and teachers can better help marginal learners fulfill their need to succeed.

Activity 7. Motivating Marginal Learners

Materials needed:

Transparencies:	*Glasser's Control Theory* *Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception* *Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement* *Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars*
Other:	Flip chart or overhead transparency, marker

Use the transparencies from Activity 3, *Glasser's Control Theory Needs* and *Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception* to point out and summarize the basic needs of all people, and especially marginal learners. Tie basic need fulfillment to the teacher behaviors in Activity 5 transparency, *Teacher Behaviors and Student*

Achievement. Tie in group responses to Activity 4 in regard to characteristics of effective teachers. You might also wish to review the *Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars* from Activity 2, using the transparency *Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars* to point out possible actions schools and teachers can take to improve learning for all students. Invite participants to reflect on learnings from the workshop activities and to describe classroom/school activities they would like to implement to assist marginal learners. Ask each participant to take a few minutes to write one action they can take to motivate marginal learners, share it with a partner, then with the total group. You may wish to record responses on a flip chart or blank transparency.

Activity 8. Resource Review

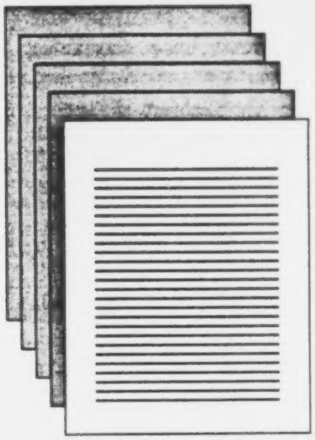
Display and discuss the utility of a variety of publications or instructional materials which address marginal learners. Publications listed in the Bibliography behind Tab #8 in this workshop notebook are suggested.

Activity 9. Wrap-up and Evaluation

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Workshop Evaluation Form* (see Tab #7)
Transparency:	*Incentives*

Solicit and respond to questions about the workshop. Review major points using the transparency, *Incentives.* Refer to participants' expectations recorded at the beginning of the workshop on flip chart paper in Activity 1 to ascertain that workshop expectations were met. Point out that the remaining workshop modules will explore ways schools, administrators, and teachers can better help marginal learners fulfill their need to succeed. Distribute evaluation forms to participants and ask them to return the completed form before leaving.



Participant Handouts

Module 2: Motivating Marginal Learners

Educators who hope to help young people value achievement and become active, involved learners, can be more effective in their influence if they see motivation as a function of need fulfillment. Several of the conditions necessary for effective learning are schoolwide in nature and not produced simply by one or two teachers working by themselves. There are likely to be some elements of the school organization and governance systems that are beyond the immediate influence of the classroom teacher. However, there are well-defined, research-based practices that classroom teachers can employ to improve the quality of their daily interactions with students. These practices have been shown to be related to increased student motivation and participation in class and increased student achievement on content-based tests. This module will focus on examining and demonstrating specific motivational techniques to use with marginal learners.

Premises for Dialogue and Action: A True–False Quiz

____1. Marginal learning behavior is the student's problem, not the school's.

____2. Temporary alienation of the student is a necessary stage of the learning process.

____ 3. The primary responsibility of the teacher is to present and cover the prescribed course content.

____4. Teachers do not have the time or the responsibility to correct errors and gaps in student learning that have accumulated over previous years of school.

____5. The family of a marginal learner is usually a major source a student's problem.

____6. It is possible to increase learning for marginal students without decreasing learning for currently successful students.

____ 7. All students run the risk of experiencing disconnection from productive learning in school.

____ 8. Marginal learners can provide teachers and program planners with important information about how to improve curriculum, instruction, and school organization.

____ 9. Teacher interactions with marginal learners are influenced by routine or habitual ways of organizing and conducting classroom activities that are seldom identified, discussed, or changed.

____ 10. To bring about successful change in the educational effectiveness of a school requires considerably more time and effort than most people estimate, typically five to seven years.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reading marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal*, pp. 162-165. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars

1. Schools contain conditions of curriculum, instruction, and organization that may hinder learning. These conditions can be replaced by means that provide all students **equal access to a quality education**. The school environment is both a source that contributes to marginality and a force that can be adjusted to improve learning. Only by attending to marginal student behavior is it possible to preserve a system of public education committed to equal access and quality learning for all children.

2. Few students are beyond the help that can be provided when home and school work together over time. Homes and schools can join forces to create powerful interventions that help students with a history of failure become successful learners. Cooperation and collaboration between parents and teachers enhance positive student attitudes and affect the skills they apply to learning.

3. The teachers and principal (support staff and service personnel should be included for maximum effectiveness) working together in a school can create the capacity for improvement necessary for increasing marginal students' learning. Several of the necessary conditions for effective learning are schoolwide and are not produced simply by individual teachers working alone, but by team work. For learning environments to become more responsive, educators' roles and responsibilities with marginal students have to be redefined.

4. Patterns of marginal behavior do not readily dissolve, but worsen over time. Young people and educators alike experience pressures (such as lack of time and resources) that hinder their ability to change the unproductive relationship between the marginal learner and the school environment.

5. Marginality does not always result from learner characteristics. Low–quality interactions between the learner and the environment are often the cause. Examining these interactions provides insight into the causes of marginality.

6. It is possible to create varied educational conditions that facilitate high levels of academic achievement for **all learners**, without decreasing learning for successful students.

7. Every student runs the risk of experiencing temporary or perhaps permanent marginality (disconnection from productive learning).

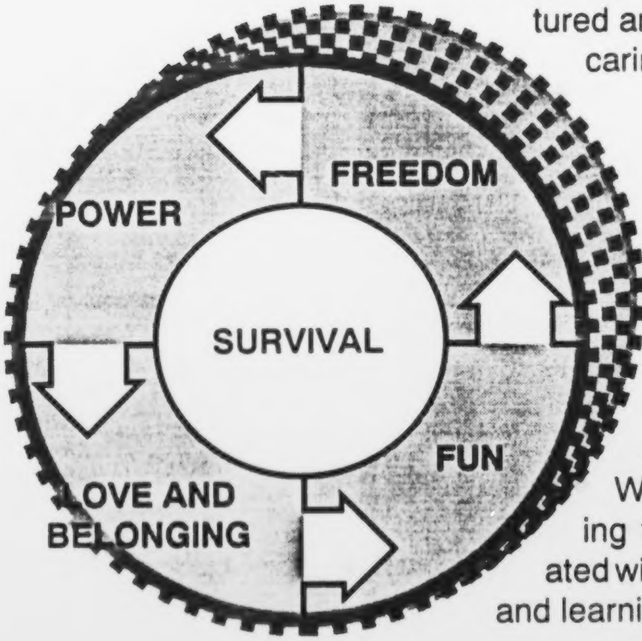
8. Since they experience the environmental constraints that hinder their efforts to learn daily, students who are at the margins of school can provide important information about improving curriculum, instruction, and organization.

9. Teacher/marginal student interactions are influenced by organizational procedures that are not explained to students and into which students have little or no input. To change habitual teaching practices that are not working with marginal students, each teacher can reflect on alternate views of how to engage learners.

10. It is estimated that the time needed to affect significant and lasting educational improvement is typically five to seven years.

Adapted from Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal*, pp. 162–165. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Glasser's Control Theory Needs



LOVE AND BELONGING

We are all born with the need to be nurtured and to nurture others through caring, cooperating, and sharing.

POWER

We all need to gain a sense of worth and recognition—to believe that we are capable human beings and know that others share this belief.

FUN

We all need the joy of encountering the unexpected that is associated with laughter, play, entertainment, and learning.

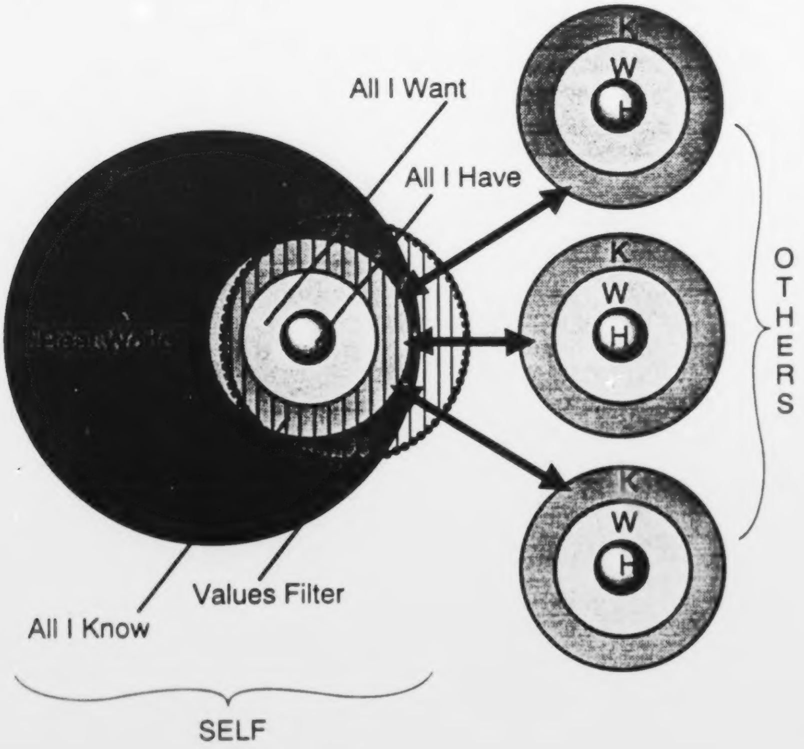
FREEDOM

We all need to have choices—options of behaviors available to us.

SURVIVAL

We all need assurance that we will have the resources we need to live and reproduce.

Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception



Control theory explains motivation in perceptual terms that are represented by the above diagram. The large outer circle represents all objects and ideas that we are aware of that exist in the real world. It is called our "all we know world." The middle circle represents everything that we want and that we believe will satisfy our needs. This circle includes all the "pictures" in our heads and is called the "all we want world." The inner circle represents those things in our possession which have satisfied some need, and is called the "all we have world." Motivation is the will that causes us to attempt to move something from our perceptual circle of "wants" to our perceptual circle of ownership or "all we have world." As students increase their world of knowledge, they are likely to encounter skills and information they value as need fulfilling and move them to their world of "wants." Depending on the degree of value they place on having the skill or information and their assessment of likelihood that they can succeed, they will be motivated to do what is necessary to move it into their world of ownership or "all we have world." Schools are in a position to affect the first two worlds of the student's perception.

Glasser's Control Theory

Glasser's Control Theory (1986) conceptualizes human behavior from a different perspective. This theory proposes that there are five basic human needs that are present simultaneously and must constantly be met in a balanced way. They are: (1) to survive and reproduce, (2) to love and belong, (3) to gain power by exhibiting competence, (4) to be free, and (5) to have fun. According to Glasser, humans are exclusively internally controlled. Every behavior is motivated by a desire to meet some need and is a personal choice of the individual.

Glasser asserts that no behavior is caused by any occurrence or person outside the individual; no external stimuli force an individual to behave outside of personal choice. Further, as a result of their success or failure at meeting their needs, people develop a success identity in which they feel in control of their lives or a failure identity in which they feel less in control of their lives. From this perspective, individuals are considered always to be controlling their behavior to some degree of effectiveness and making the best available choice at that time. Coercion, attempting to limit need–fulfilling choices in order to control behavior, has only a limited effect, because people continually persevere in their attempts to make best choices in satisfying their needs. Whenever people perceive that a better choice is available, their behavior will change.

From a Control Theory perspective, motivation as a way of manipulating student behavior becomes a secondary concern to helping individuals succeed in responsibly meeting their needs. Responsibility is defined as meeting one's needs without interfering with the needs of others.

Glasser notes that until the last part of this century, economic constraints led people to seek financial security and, having established a desired level of security, they felt free to explore identity or role needs. People focused on security needs are willing to suppress their identity or growth needs in the service of meeting the goals of the person or institution which holds power over their means to security, such as money or education.

An extreme attitudinal change has occurred in the latter part of the 20th century as a result of the level of security our society has achieved. With the fulfillment of security needs nearly taken for granted, some people are less willing to suppress their identity needs. This change has shaken the foundations of institutional practice in politics, business, and education. Those in power are finding that accommodating the identity needs of workers and students alike is necessary for motivation and productivity. The rising number of at–risk students in school has demonstrated most urgently this shift in attitude. Educators are finding that unless students are successful in achieving respect as individuals, they are unwilling to perform tasks related to the school's goals, becoming alienated and disconnected from school and learning.

Adapted from Glasser, W. (1987). *Control theory in the classroom.* New York: Harper & Row.

Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy

Name ______________________________ Date ______________

A = Very satisfied (no frustration signal) **B** = Mostly satisfied **C** = OK **D** = Mostly dissatisfied **E** = Very Dissatisfied

LOVE	Do I have relationships which meet my needs for affection, attention, sharing, cooperation, etc.?	Spouse	A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my love/ belonging needs as A B C D E
		Children	A B C D E	
		Mother	A B C D E	
		Father	A B C D E	
		Sister	A B C D E	
		Brother	A B C D E	
		Friends	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
BELONGING	List organizations, clubs, or groups in which I feel affection, inclusion, and belonging.	________	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
		Work	A B C D E	
POWER	Who listens to me, agrees with me, and follows my ideas? Who recognizes my abilities? Who compliments me on my accomplishments?	Boss	A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my power needs as A B C D E
		Co-worker	A B C D E	
		Spouse	A B C D E	
		Children	A B C D E	
		Parents	A B C D E	
		Friends	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
WORTH	Do I accept my worth as a human being?		A B C D E	
	Do I appreciate my good qualities and competencies?		A B C D E	
	Do I acknowledge my achievements?		A B C D E	
	Do I make a daily effort to compliment myself?		A B C D E	
FUN	Do I laugh enough?		A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my fun needs as A B C D E
	Do I engage in learning in order to enjoy myself?		A B C D E	
	List fun activities I do with others: ________________ ________________		And frequency: ________ ________	
	List fun activities I do alone: ________________ ________________		And frequency: ________ ________	
FREEDOM	Do I do what I want without feeling controlled?		A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my freedom needs as A B C D E
	Do I feel free to express myself without being criticized?		A B C D E	
	Do I spend my time the way I want?		A B C D E	
	Do I spend my money the way I want?		A B C D E	
	Do I feel like I run my own life (or do I feel like I let others)?		A B C D E	

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Student Evaluation of Psychological Needs

Name ______________________________ Date ______________

A = Very satisfied (pure pleasure) **B** = Mostly satisfied **C** = Okay **D** = Mostly dissatisfied **E** = Very dissatisfied (pure pain)

LOVE	Do I have people in my life who care for me, cooperate with me, and give me affection?	Mother	A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my love/ belonging needs as A B C D E
		Father	A B C D E	
		Sister(s)	A B C D E	
		Brother(s)	A B C D E	
		Grandma	A B C D E	
		Grandpa	A B C D E	
		Teacher	A B C D E	
		Friend(s)	A B C D E	
BELONGING	List organizations, clubs, or groups in which I feel included (example: sports, band, choir, drama, etc.	________	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
		________	A B C D E	
		School	A B C D E	
POWER	Who listens to me, agrees with me, and follows my ideas? Who helps me feel important? Who recognizes and compliments me?	Mother	A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my power needs as A B C D E
		Father	A B C D E	
		Sister(s)	A B C D E	
		Brother(s)	A B C D E	
		Grandma	A B C D E	
		Grandpa	A B C D E	
		Teacher	A B C D E	
		Friend(s)	A B C D E	
WORTH	Do I accept my good qualities and competencies?		A B C D E	
	Do I make a daily effort to compliment myself?		A B C D E	
	Do I acknowledge my achievements as good?		A B C D E	
	Can I make myself feel good when I do my best work?		A B C D E	
FUN	Do I laugh enough?		A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my fun needs as A B C D E
	Do I enjoy school?		A B C D E	
	List fun activities I do alone:	Daily	Weekly (check how often) Monthly	
	____________________	____	____ ____	
	____________________	____	____ ____	
	List fun activities I do with others: ____________________	____	____ ____	
	____________________	____	____ ____	
FREEDOM	Do I do what I want without feeling controlled by others?		A B C D E	Overall, I would rank my freedom needs as A B C D E
	Do I feel free to express myself without being criticized?		A B C D E	
	Do I spend my time the way I want?		A B C D E	
	Do I spend my money the way I want?		A B C D E	
	Do I feel like I run my own life? (or do let others?)		A B C D E	

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Good Morning Miss Toliver: Guiding Questions for Discussion

Student–Related Affective and Cognitive Factors Influencing Participation and Performance:

Consider the following questions in regard to marginal learners. What implications for classroom interventions are suggested or brought to mind in the videotape, *Good Morning Miss Toliver*? Responses will be shared after viewing.

How can students be assisted to:

1. develop and maintain positive **attitudes** toward mathematics and other subjects?
2. develop and maintain **persistence** in the face of conflict in problem solving?
3. avoid race and sex **stereotyping**?
4. understand the **utility** of the study of mathematics and other subjects (applicability to everyday life and value to future schooling and careers)?
5. relate content to **prior experiences**, especially when those experiences may be lacking?
6. use **learning strategies** to strengthen academic deficiencies?
7. build on varied **learning styles**?

Adapted from Beane, D. B. (1988). *Mathematics and Science: Critical Factors for the Future of Minority Students.* Washington, DC: Mid– Atlantic Equity Center.

Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement: Fishbowl Activity

The Gender Expectation and Student Achievement (GESA) program seeks to produce equal interest and achievement in mathematics, reading, and language arts in boys and girls in classrooms of teachers receiving GESA training. It seeks to reduce gender stereotyping, to increase non–stereotypical interaction with students, and to equalize the frequency of interactions with boys and girls.

Directions:

Participants will divide into five groups, each appointing a reporter and a recorder. Members of each group analyze two of the behaviors described below and devise a classroom intervention for each based on the implications given. Group reporters form the "fishbowl" by placing five chairs in a circle in the middle of the room. Other participants remain at their tables outside the fishbowl. Fishbowl occupants proceed to share and discuss findings with the total group. Group members wishing to contribute information or pose a question may communicate the desire to enter the fishbowl by standing behind the seat of their group representative. Comments may not be added from outside the fishbowl.

Rules:

a. Only those sitting in the fishbowl chairs may speak.

b. One representative at a time from each group may enter the fishbowl.

c. Any participant who wishes to ask a question, comment, or add new information may indicate so by standing behind his/her group member in the fishbowl who then vacates the chair and returns to the table, allowing the next person to be seated. This process continues until all information has been presented and discussed.

d. Questions, comments, and additions may not be given from the floor, only from the fishbowl.

Behaviors:

1. **Opportunities to Respond in Class**

   definition: Students need a chance to perform to ask questions, to answer questions, to state opinions, to write on the chalkboard, to participate in demonstrations, to conduct experiments, to solve problems, to make presentations.

   implications: Students kept in passive roles frequently report that they are bored with the class and see no relevance of the subject matter to their daily lives. Effective teachers plan their lessons so that the students bear the laboring oar in practicing and demonstrating what they have learned. They establish a classroom atmosphere that fosters student initiative, responsibility, and effort. The teacher is as often a coach to learning as opposed to a dispenser of information.

2. **Individual Acknowledgment**

   definition: Individual acknowledgment is verbal or non-verbal engagement with a student that affirms, praises, corrects, criticizes, or rejects a student response or classroom behavior. Individual acknowledgment may be conveyed in written comments on student work, oral responses, or through smiles, nods, eye contact, or other gestures.

implications: Students who become alienated or disconnected from school often report that they feel like a number, not a person. They are likely to say that my teacher doesn't care if I come to school or not, and doesn't even know my name. Effective teachers recognize that the structure and organization of schools, while efficient in handling large numbers and complex sets of information, may send messages of indifference to students with low levels of self esteem, or students who feel swallowed up and processed by a large, uncaring machine. They respond to the need for personal identification in various ways. Some teachers greet students as they enter the room; others make sure they call upon every student by name during the class period. Some even make a habit of walking the corridors between classes, mingling with students, frequently using their names, and engaging them in conversations. Many use brief notes on quizzes, tests, or written reports to demonstrate individual attention.

3. Wait-Time

definition: Wait-time is the time that elapses between offering and terminating an opportunity for a student to perform. Research indicates that many teachers allow students too little time (two seconds) to think a question through, formulate a response, and give an answer before moving on to another student, or before moving on to another question. When teachers provide more wait-time (five seconds), following both the original question and the student's first response, the quality and quantity of student participation increases.

implications: Failing to give adequate wait-time generally produces the following pattern: (a) the student gives a short response; (b) the answer is probably memorized, not thought out; (c) slower students don't participate; this game is dominated by the quick; (d) the teacher reaches quickly for another question; and (e) it becomes easy to say "I don't know," and get off the hook. By increasing the use of wait-time, both following the initial question and again after the first response, the following pattern is likely to occur: (a) the length of student responses increases; (b) the number of unsolicited appropriate responses increases; (c) student confidence increases; (d) the incidence of speculative responses increases; (e) amount of student questions increases; and (f) amount of student-student questions increases.

Wait-time tends to be longest when the teacher asks questions that require interpretation or reorganization of facts or opinions.

4. Physical Closeness/Proximity

definition: Physical closeness is when the student and the teacher are conducting their activities near each other (2–6 feet) for at least part of the time during the class.

implications: Effective teachers make appropriate adjustments in seating arrangements and pay attention to their own movements in the classroom during instruction. Some teachers deliberately change their seating charts every marking term to decrease the chances of always calling on the same persons, or to encourage new patterns of behavior for themselves and their students. Others simply move around the room a lot changing the focus of instruction from day to day or by circulating throughout the room during instruction so that they can be near all of the students at least part of each class period. This practice contributes to better monitoring of student understanding, increases the amount of student on-task behavior, and sends a message that "I care about what I am doing in this class, I am comfortable being around everybody in this room, and I am definitely in tune with and in charge of what is going on."

5. **Touching**

definition: Touching is using the hands to contact a student in a way that expresses helpfulness, encouragement, regard, or affection.

implications: The touching of students in school can be a sensitive issue. There are some traditional and universally recognized non-verbal gestures and contacts that may be acceptable in some settings and unacceptable in others. Younger students of both sexes generally regard a hug or pat on the back as a legitimate sign of approval from their teacher. By upper middle or junior high grades, however, the context is much more situational. A hug or pat on the back may be seen as childish or condescending. Or, it may be considered acceptable if a male teacher touches a male student, or if a female teacher touches a female student, but not acceptable if the student is of a sex different from the teacher. By senior high school, hugging appears to be more legitimate between female teachers and female students, and between coaches and players of either gender. In an instructional setting, a touch on the upper arm or back can signal "I want your attention," "Stop that," or "Good job, I'm proud of you." A handshake is always acceptable, but not often practiced. With marginal learners, in particular, the degree of appropriateness for physical contact is even more situational.

6. **Praise/Reproof**

definition: Praise is verbal or non-verbal indication that a student behavior is desirable and should be continued. Reproof is verbal or non-verbal indication that a student behavior is not acceptable and should be discontinued.

implications: In giving praise or in administering reproof, effective teachers separate the behavior from the individual. They praise the performance, not the individual. They deny the behavior, not the person. Consequently, Mary is told, "The report you prepared was excellent, Mary." She is not told "Mary, you are terrific," because this assumes that she will always be terrific, and confuses the person with the work. Sarah is told that, "Turning around and chatting with Terry while I am teaching is not acceptable behavior." She is not told that "You are always causing trouble! Will you ever learn??"

7. **Listening**

definition: Listening is providing undivided attention to an individual and is generally characterized by (a) eye contact with the other person; (b) non-verbal gestures of interest, attention, and evaluation; (c) paraphrasing of what was said to demonstrate understanding; and (d) follow–up questions or remarks.

implications: Listening is a powerful way to demonstrate caring and respect. Marginal learners need opportunities to feel good about themselves and their ability to fit into the mainstream of school life. They need to feel that they belong, and that their principal and teachers care about what they have to say. This carries two important implications for working with marginal learners: (a) teachers can gain important clues about things to adjust, incorporate, or exclude from their classrooms and programs, by genuinely listening to their marginal learners; and (b) teachers can contribute to marginal learners' improved contributions by planning for and providing sound experiences with adults and community institutions.

8. **Probing**

definition: Probing involves the use of sustained questioning in order to remain with a student who is not responding. Probing may require rephrasing a question or set of directions, providing additional information, suggesting an appropriate process to think through a problem, or reminding the student of related information.

implications: Effective teachers do what they can to replace negative expectations (both theirs and their students) with positive ones. When they sense that a student is unsure of how to answer or comment, they give clues or hints to help them out, encourage them to try to respond even if they seem unsure, and wait until they can answer something correctly. They don't ask someone else right away, making the student feel inadequate for not knowing, giving the correct answer, or allowing other people to jump in. Part of the strategy in sustaining students in failure situations may be to call on someone else eventually, but disengagement can be done by saying something like, "Tom, I'm going to give Janet a chance to give her explanation, but I'll come back to check out her answer with you." They invariably return to the student who could not respond correctly or at all, and keep the intellectual responsibility where it belongs.

9. Higher Level Questioning

definition: Higher level questions challenge students to reflect on the content of lessons and to process information in a more sophisticated way by (a) recalling related facts from several sources, (b) expressing opinions and giving reasons, (c) summarizing what the class has learned, (d) predicting the consequences of certain actions, and (e) organizing the information in an entirely new way.

implications: Higher level questions go beyond recalling of facts from a reading assignment or reciting previous instruction. They can provide ways for students to relate the subject matter directly to their personal lives as well as practice higher order thinking skills of patterning, identifying relationships, and analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating.

10. Analytical Feedback/Reasons for Praise

definition: In analytical feedback, the teacher explains the strengths and weaknesses of a student response. Situations include (a) pointing out where the thought process may have gone astray, (b) exploring a false assumption, (c) explaining how an inappropriate process was applied, (d) praising the use of multiple sources, and (e) reinforcing transfer of knowledge from a different situation.

implications: Analytical feedback informs the learner about the content and process of their response. The teacher provides information about the appropriateness and accuracy of the student's treatment of the subject matter, and comments on the application of intended or desired learning skills, e.g.:

"Bill, your prediction of the force needed to lift the weights in the problem was correct. You showed that you can apply the principle of distribution of forces across a three-pulley system. I especially appreciated the diagram you prepared to illustrate how you solved the problem. It communicated some complex ideas very simply. May I pass it around for the rest of the class to see?"

When analytical feedback is made orally and in whole or small group instruction, more learners benefit from the teacher's response. Analytical feedback becomes another instructional strategy for helping marginal learners see relationships between apparently unrelated elements of their learning environments.

Reprinted, with permission, from Grayson, D. A. (1985). *Gender Expectations and Student Achievement Training Manual.* Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles County Board of Education.

Teacher Student Communication Questionnaire

A. Attention

1. Do some members of this class get more attention than others? If so, why?

2. Do you feel that you personally get as much attention as you should in this class?

3. Do you feel better if the teacher calls on you a lot or if you are left alone?

B. Participation

1. What general level of expectation best describes what the teacher wants from the class during a discussion? (circle one)

   a. specific and analytical comments based on the assignment
   b. remarks about anything we think or like about the topic
   c. you can say anything as long as you participate
   d. it doesn't matter if you contribute or not

2. The teacher's expectation of me, personally is (circle one):

   a. more of me than of others
   b. the same from me as from everybody else
   c. a little less from me than from others
   d. just to get to class on time

C. Level of difficulty

1. The questions the teacher asks are (circle one):

   a. so hard most people can't answer them
   b. so easy they are insulting
   c. easy enough to answer, but hard enough so you have to really think

D. Use of wait–time

1. After the teacher has asked a question, do you (circle one):

   a. have too little time to think through your answer?
   b. have enough time to think through your answer?
   c. have too much time to think through your answer?

E. Sustaining vs. terminating responses

1. When you are unsure of how to answer or comment, does the teacher (circle one):

   a. give clues or hints to help you out?
   b. encourage you to respond, even if you appear unsure?
   c. wait until you answer something?
   d. ask someone else?
   e. make you feel dumb for not knowing?
   f. give the correct answer?
   g. let other people jump in?

F. Use of praise

1. What are signs of praise in this class? How do you know if you do well?

2. The teacher (circle one):

   a. gives praise too often
   b. gives praise too little
   c. gives praise about right

3. Do you feel that you get your share of praise?

4. Does everyone get praised in this class?

G. Use of criticism

1. The teacher reacts to my work (circle one):

   a. mostly negatively
   b. mostly positively
   c. somewhere in between
   d. like he/she isn't interested at all

2. When my teacher criticizes my work, it makes me want to (circle one):

   a. use the comments to help myself do better the next time
   b. ignore them and keep on doing things the way I have been
   c. tell the teacher where to go
   d. just leave this class and never come back

H. Eye contact

1. Does the teacher tend to look at the people in one part of the room more than the other? If so, where?

2. Does the teacher look you in the eye during class?

3. Do you look the teacher in the eye during class, or do you avoid eye contact? Why?

I. Seating arrangements

1. Does where you sit in the class make a difference as to how the teacher reacts to you? Explain.

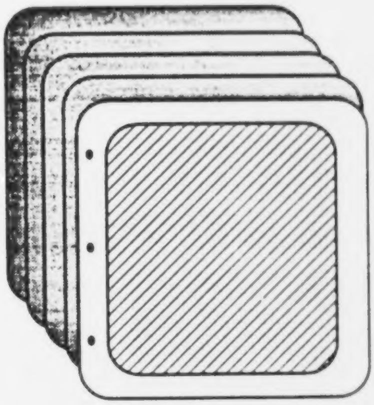
2. Does where you sit in class make a difference in how you learn? How so?

J. Clarity of purpose

1. Does the teacher make it clear each day what you will be doing in class?

2. Does the teacher make it clear what it is you should be learning and how you should be learning it?

3. Do you prefer to have instructions given orally or written on the board? Why?



Transparencies

Module 2 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Assess and describe attitudes and assumptions that affect marginal learners.
2. Explore ways in which students can be motivated in school through an evaluation of psychological needs.
3. Examine teacher characteristics and behaviors that motivate marginal learners and maximize achievement.
4. Develop a set of in–class and in–school strategies that can alleviate conditions leading to marginal learning.

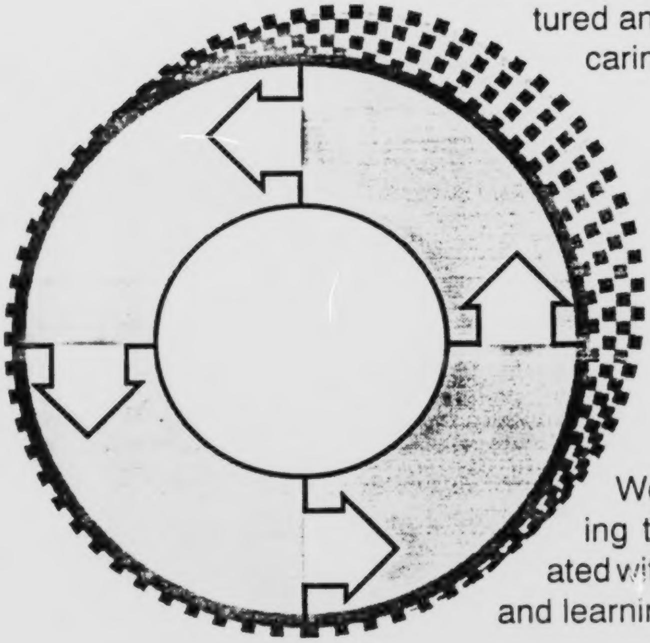
Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars

What Can Be Done?

1. Ensure equal access to a quality education: School conditions
2. Develop home–school partnerships
3. Secure total staff collaboration
4. Address unproductive patterns of behavior
5. Change low–quality interactions
6. Vary educational conditions
7. Be aware that marginality = risk to all
8. Seek student input
9. Examine and improve teacher/ student interactions
10. Provide adequate time for lasting improvement

From Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal,* pp. 162–165. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Glasser's Control Theory Needs



LOVE AND BELONGING

We are all born with the need to be nurtured and to nurture others through caring, cooperating, and sharing.

POWER

We all need to gain a sense of worth and recognition—to believe that we are capable human beings and know that others share this belief.

FUN

We all need the joy of encountering the unexpected that is associated with laughter, play, entertainment, and learning.

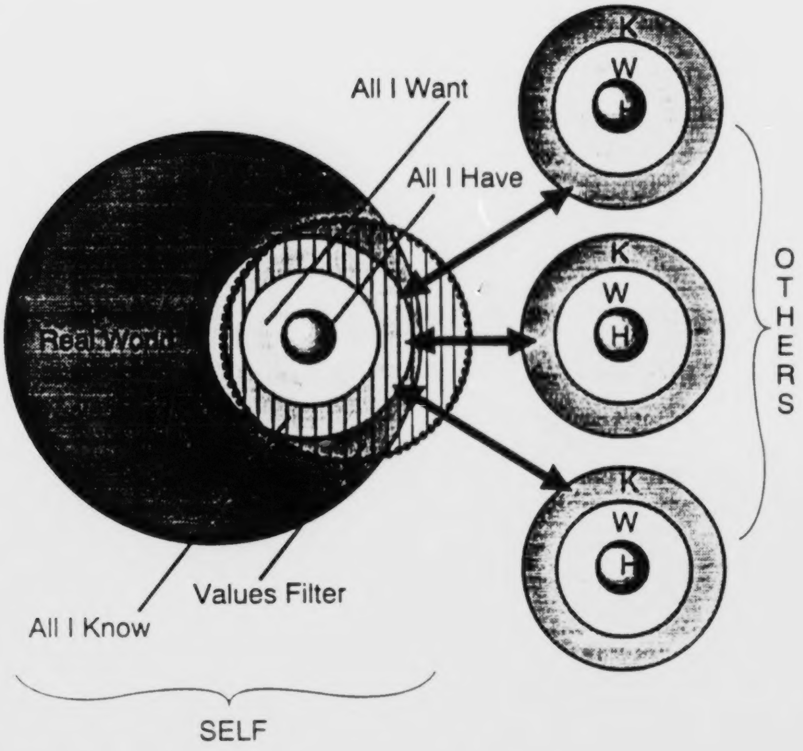
FREEDOM

We all need to have choices—options of behaviors available to us.

SURVIVAL

We all need assurance that we will have the resources we need to live and reproduce.

Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception


All I Want
All I Have
Real World
Values Filter
All I Know
SELF
K
W
H
K
W
H
K
W
H
OTHERS

Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement

1. Opportunities to respond in class
2. Individual acknowledgment
3. Wait-time
4. Physical closeness/proximity
5. Touching
6. Praise/reproof
7. Listening
8. Probing
9. Higher level questioning
10. Analytical feedback/reasons for praise

From Grayson, D. (1985). *Gender Expectations and Student Achievement Training Manual.* Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles County Board of Education.

Incentives

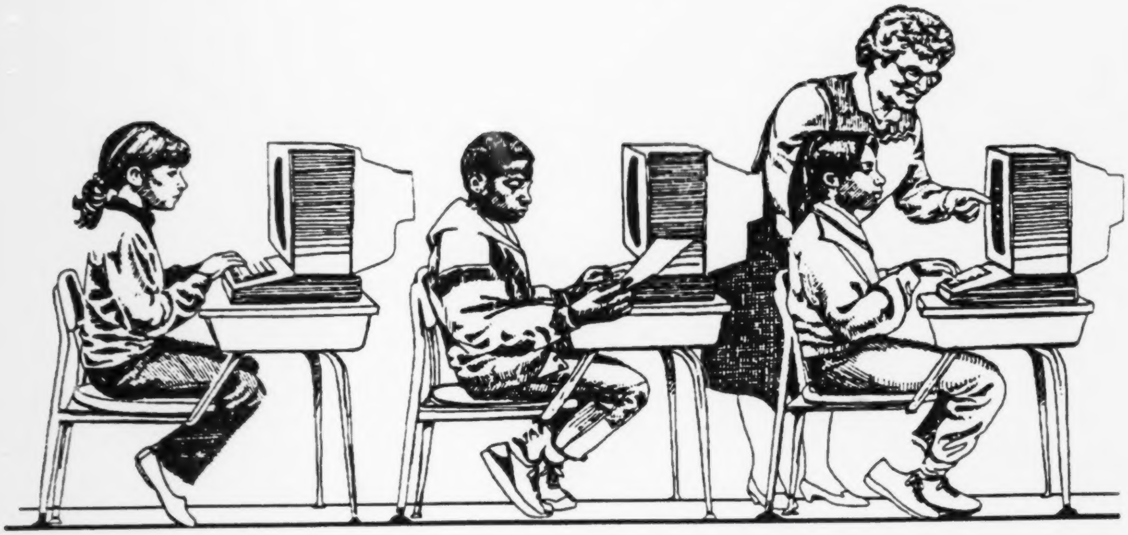
"I learn what I want to learn. I want to learn what I value or am convinced by people whom I trust that I will eventually value. I want to learn what is fun, what is interesting, what respect elders tell me is important, what gives me a kick, what I am good at."

From Sizer, T. (1984). *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*, p. 164. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

MODULE 3

Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners

Some students have a hard time adjusting to school rules and classroom conditions. Others have problems following the curriculum and learning activities at the pace at which they are presented. Still others have difficulty learning even when the instructional approach is appropriate and material is presented skillfully. In this module, participants will examine four approaches to improving instruction for marginal learners in their classrooms.



Module 3. Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners Training Agenda for Focused Workshop (3 hours, 55 minutes)

Time Required		
10 minutes	Activity 1	Introductions and Expectations—group activity
10 minutes	Activity 2	Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners—lecturette
30 minutes	Activity 3	Supplying the Missing Skills—small group activity
60 minutes	Activity 4	Structuring for Success: Modified Jigsaw—small group activity
10 minutes	Break	
30 minutes	Activity 5	Connecting Personally—lecturette and small group activity
40 minutes	Activity 6	Getting Help—individual writing activity
35 minutes	Activity 7	Considerations for Dialog and Action—questions, responses, discussion
5 minutes	Activity 8	Resource Review
5 minutes	Activity 9	Wrap-up and Session Evaluation
235 minutes		

Trainer's Instructions

Activity 1. Introductions and Expectations

Trainer's Notes

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners*
Transparency:	*Module 3 Objectives*
Other:	Flip chart and marker

To provide focus for the workshop, distribute and direct participants to read, or review for them, the introductory handout *Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners.* Ask participants to introduce themselves and to state a desired expectation or outcome from the workshop. Record these on flip chart paper. Expectations that can be included in the program should be noted. Expectations beyond the scope of the workshop or relating to another module should be indicated as such. Present the workshop objectives, using the transparency *Module 3 Objectives,* and adjust trainer remarks and directions during the workshop to meet relevant participant needs.

Activity 2. Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners—lecturette

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*What Makes Them Marginal?* *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners, an Overview*
Transparencies:	*What Makes Them Marginal?* *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners*

To orient participants to the type of learners who may be aided by the approaches to be discussed, review information from handout and the transparency, *What Makes Them Marginal?* Conclude this activity by distributing *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners, an Overview* and use the transparency *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners* to briefly note four major ways teachers can assist marginal learners—supplying skills, structuring instruction, connecting personally, and getting help. Background information for a brief lecturette is contained in the handout. Explain that in the next four activities, participants will examine each of the strategies.

Activity 3. Supplying the Missing Skills

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners, an Overview*
Transparency:	*Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners*
Other:	Flip chart paper, several markers

Refer to the handout *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners, an Overview.* Also useful at this point is the transparency *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners,* included in this module. Divide the group into five (10 if the group is large, with two groups per category) small discussion groups. Assign each group a separate category of learning skills and provide flip chart paper and markers. Categories include student assessment, learning strategies, critical thinking, problem-solving, and communication and conflict resolution. Ask each group to develop and prioritize a list of practices that classroom teachers in all subject areas, at all grade levels, in regular education classes, can do to improve the likelihood of students learning.

Each group is asked to select a recorder to print clearly on flip chart paper and to post the results where all can see. Conclude this activity by inviting participants to examine each group's list during break by walk-about viewing. After the break, ask each group's reporter to report out to the total group. Encourage discussion and explanation of strategies for increasing student learning. In the next activity participants will examine modifying instruction to reach marginal learners.

Activity 4. Structuring for Success

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Jigsaw II (Modified)* (see Module 1) *Jigsaw Expert Sheet: Guiding Questions* #1 *Group Instructional Strategies* #2 *Peer Tutoring* #3 *Individualized Instruction* #4 *Interdisciplinary Learning—How Can Interdisciplinary Learning Help Marginal Learners?* #5 *Interdisciplinary Learning—How is Curriculum Integrated?* #6 *Cooperative Learning—How Can Cooperative Learning Help Marginal Learners?*

	#7 Cooperative Learning—How are Cooperative Learning Groups Established?
	#8 Service Learning—How Can Service Learning Help Marginal Learners?
	#9 Service Learning—How is Service Learning Implemented?
Transparency:	*Jigsaw Exercise* (see Module 1)
Other:	"Adapting Classroom Practices" skills list generated during Activity 2.

Lead into this activity by explaining that while assisting individual skill development in methods outlined on the flip chart sheets (Activity 3) is useful, sometimes adapting instructional practices for some or all students is necessary. This activity looks at modifying instruction to reach marginal learners. In this cooperative learning activity called Jigsaw, participants count off by 1's through 9's until everyone is assigned a number (3 minutes) to determine home and expert group membership. Refer to *Jigsaw II (Modified)* handout and use *Jigsaw Exercise* transparency from Module 1, Activity 2, if desired. Participants form home groups of nine (participants numbered off one through nine and sitting in adjacent chairs) and introduce themselves. Then ask the persons assigned each number (1–9) to move to designated areas of the room to form nine expert groups to read and discuss the nine numbered selections listed as handouts for this activity. As they read, participants may wish to use the handout *Jigsaw Expert Sheet: Guiding Questions* to assist them in gathering pertinent information to share with their home groups. (15 minutes).

Request that expert groups representing articles numbered 1-9 move back into home groups and share what they have learned, from reading and from their experience, with home group members (3 minutes each, report-out time = 27 minutes).

As all groups finish, ask one volunteer for each selection to briefly compare these strategies found to be successful with marginal learners with their "Adapting Classroom Practices" skills lists from Activity 2. Discuss how modifying instructional practices may fail to reach some alienated marginal learners (9 min.) and suggest exploring the use of another strategy such as personal connections between student and teacher, which is introduced in the next activity.

Activity 5. Connecting Personally

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement* (see Module 2) *Positive Reinforcement*
Transparencies:	*Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement*

Other: index cards, masking tape, flip chart paper, markers, blank overhead transparency and marker

Ask participants to refer to information from the Module 2, Activity 5 handout, *Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement*, and distribute this module's handout, *Positive Reinforcement*, as a supplement to the former's subsection, "Praise/Reproof." Using the transparency *Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement*, outline the 10 areas in which the quality of daily personal interactions between teacher and student can be improved to increase the likelihood of student learning.

Conduct a Tellaround. Ask participants to form table groups of 6–8 and assign a recorder and a reporter. Distribute two index cards to each person and masking tape, flip chart paper and a marker to each table. Ask each participant to think about and answer the following questions in writing, one per index card:

1. Which of the 10 teacher behaviors have worked in your classroom or school to develop positive student/teacher interactions?
2. How was learning enhanced for (a) marginal learner(s) through these behaviors?

After 5 minutes, ask participants at each table to share their responses as the recorder makes notes on the flip chart paper. Each person in the group responds, moving clockwise around the table. The recorder posts the flip chart paper, then the reporter shares highlights with the total group. The trainer records highlights on a flip chart or a blank overhead transparency. Conclude with a brief discussion of why connecting personally with marginal students may be the method used least often.

Activity 6. Getting Help

Materials needed:

Handouts: *Web*

Transparencies: *Web*
Help Web

Other: Flip chart, marker

Ask each participant to write a brief description of an occasion where he/she had tried just about everything to reach a particular student or group of students—supplying the skills, structuring the classroom differently, connecting personally—and found him/herself at the "end of the rope" (10 minutes).

Use overhead transparency and handout, *Web*, and invite participants to describe on the handout how they got the help they needed and what form that help took (10 minutes). Ask for volunteers to share their descriptions with the group. As they report, note "Problem" and "Resources" on flip chart paper in two columns. Finally, using the overhead transparency *Help Web*, create a visual summary of the approaches used by determining how many stories included (a) getting help from administrators, (b) getting help from other teachers, (c) getting help from district assistance teams, (d) getting help through district professional development, and (e) outside sources. Do this by labeling each example previously noted on the flip chart paper. Discuss conclusions about predominant problem types and resource approaches.

Activity 7. Considerations for Dialogue and Action

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners* *Supplying the Necessary Skills: Things Teachers Can Do to Help Students Learn* *Accommodating Marginal Learners in the Regular Classroom: A Summary of Effective Practices* *Teaching Children With Attention Deficit Disorder* *ADHD Attention Deficit–Hyperactivity Disorder and Learning Disabilities* *Accommodating Marginal Learners: Actions, Needs, and Plans*
Transparencies:	*Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners* *Accommodating Marginal Learners: School Actions, Needs, and Plans*

Refer participants to this module's Activity 1 handout, *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners*. Review workshop concepts using the *Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners* transparency. Distribute the four participant handouts: *Supplying the Necessary Skills: Things Teachers Can Do to Help Students Learn; Accommodating Marginal Learners in the Regular Classroom: A Summary of Effective Practices; Teaching Children With Attention Deficit Disorder;* and *ADHD Attention Deficit–Hyperactivity Disorder and Learning Disabilities*. Allow time for review of the new material (about 10 minutes).

Using a **Think–Pair–Share** activity, ask participants to reflect on and identify areas in which their district or school is most active in helping marginal learners and those in which improvements are most needed. Participants should also consider planning for interventions appropriate for marginal learners that are needed in the school/district. Distribute the handout *Accommodating Marginal Learners: Actions, Needs, and Plans*, and ask natural partners (seated next to each other) to consider the question (think), write responses, confer with a partner (pair), and share findings with the total group. Allow about 10 minutes to think and pair, then 5 minutes to share. Use the overhead transparency *Accommodating Marginal Learners: School Actions, Needs, and Plans* to list participant responses. Allow additional time for whole group interaction and for discussions of topics or concepts not anticipated.

Activity 8. Resource Review

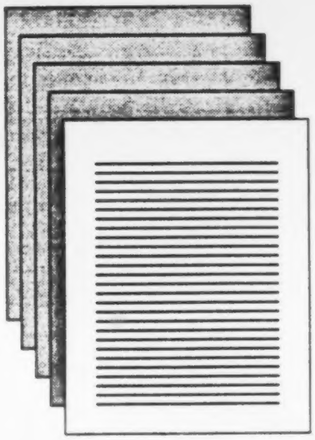
Refer to displayed key resources on helping marginal learners. These resources serve as materials available for further reading, reflection, and professional development.

Activity 9. Wrap–up and Session Evaluation

Materials needed:

Handout: *Workshop Evaluation Form* (see Tab #7)

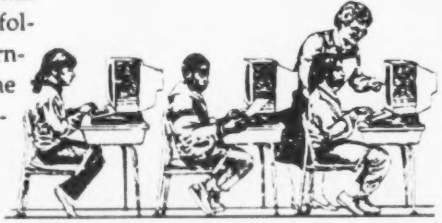
Distribute a session evaluation form to be completed by the participants and returned to you.



Participant Handouts

Module 3: Adapting Classroom Practices to Accommodate Marginal Learners

Some students have a hard time adjusting to school rules and classroom conditions. Others have problems following the curriculum and learning what is being taught at the pace at which it is being delivered. Still others have difficulty learning even when the instructional approach is appropriate and material is presented skillfully. In this module, participants will examine four approaches to improving instruction for marginal learners in their classrooms.



What Makes Them Marginal?

1. **Recognizable handicaps** (sight, speech, hearing, debilitating diseases, etc.) requiring specialized treatment outside of school
2. **Mental retardation** requiring specialized education programs
3. **Physiological disorders** (dyslexia, inability to establish left to right progression, inability to interpret words or pictures, or other)
4. **Slow academic gain** (advances of only one half to three quarters of a grade per year) and inability to grasp higher abstractions and symbols.
5. **Emotional problems** originating with significant persons in their lives (may lead to using school to resolve conflicts; anxiety levels lower ability to concentrate).
6. **Cultural and social backgrounds** that prepare them poorly for school and contribute to lack of motivation to achieve in school.

Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners, an Overview

Strategy 1. Supplying the Missing Skills

1. Providing learning-to-learn skills
   - a. attention-training activities
   - b goal setting and time-management skills
   - c. power-thinking strategies (positive statements and visual images)

2. Developing content-specific thinking and study skills
   - a. basic concepts and larger organizational structures (organizing and labeling information, recognizing relationships)
   - b. strategies for processing information (outlining, highlighting, note-cards, graphic organizers)
   - c. predictable patterns in discourse and text (various genres of text)
   - d. relating new to known
   - e. predicting
   - f. summarizing
   - g. questioning

3. Encouraging basic reasoning skills
   - a. recognizing inaccuracies in reading and thinking
   - b. problem-solving
   - c. persistence
   - d. thinking aloud
   - e. being reflective, objective, logical, and unbiased
   - f. researching
   - g. composing a product
   - h. communicating results

4. Modeling desirable communication skills
   - a. listening actively and reflectively; providing wait time
   - b. clarifying, restating, paraphrasing
   - c. asserting values and needs, "I" statements, showing respect
   - d. resolving conflict—focusing on the problem, not participants; defining the problem; producing and choosing solutions; negotiating

5. Teaching test-taking skills

Strategy 2: Structuring for Success

1. Modifying instructional grouping

Both whole class and small group approaches can be combined for success in teaching basic skills to heterogeneous groups of average and below average students. The student's needs, abilities, or interests provide a legitimate basis for varied grouping patterns in the regular classroom. Successful practices include:

- group-based mastery learning programs that produce gains in achievement, retention, time on task, and attitude toward learning
- peer tutoring and cooperative learning programs that produce gains in achievement and pupil behavior
- reciprocal teaching approaches that improve content comprehension
- Adaptive Learning Environments that coordinate direct skills instruction with small group process of inquiry
- preteaching and reteaching small groups and individuals

2. Providing individualized instruction

Students with a history of successive failure and a low level of self-esteem often feel that schools do not see or care about them as individuals. Individualized instruction attempts to alter materials, assignments, and classroom management techniques to meet the needs and learning styles of each student. Components of individualized instruction may include:

- attention to learning style and teaching style
- individual project assignments
- alternative assignments
- adaptive materials and equipment
- team teaching approaches
- study buddies
- peer tutors
- preteaching and reteaching individuals
- alternative assessments—performance, portfolio, product, personal communication, observation

3. Encouraging experiential learning

Marginal learners need more, not less, contact with legitimate nonschool settings and adults as role models. Teachers can play a pivotal role in making curriculum connections between the world of school and the world of work so that *all* students in their classrooms can increase their learning. Specific practices that can serve to heighten interest and stimulate involvement include:

- guest speakers/demonstrations, Read Aloud volunteers, etc.
- field trips
- work-study programs
- internships/apprenticeships
- "shadow" or student exchange programs
- service learning
- Big Brother/Sister Programs
- pen pals/computer networks

4. Encouraging cooperation and belonging

Practices that decrease hostility, anxiety, or alienation on the part of previously unsuccessful learners include:

- use of positive, reinforcing statements and gestures by the teacher
- successful, cooperative supportive, noncompetitive class enterprises or activities
- recognition of and adaptation to individual differences
- relaxed pace of introducing new material, using appropriate transitions and checking for understanding
- pupil role in planning and managing class activity and classroom organization
- warm, friendly, genuine relationships between teacher and pupils
- advisor/advisee relationships (teacher/pupil)
- study buddies (students)
- service learning
- cooperative learning

Strategy 3. Connecting Personally

1. Monitoring teacher communication of expectations

Teachers may treat individual students differently. Whether out of personal dislike, unfounded cues, or bias, teachers may perceive them as differing in academic ability or potential for achievement. Often, the teacher is actually unaware that he or she is sending messages of disapproval, exclusion, distrust, or indifference—messages that thwart success and dampen motivation—the two most important factors in the growth of marginal learners.

2. Home-school communications

Parents can be a teacher's strongest ally in reaching the marginal learner: not because of the pressure they might bring to bear on their child to perform—that may indeed be a contributing factor to a child's poor performance in school—but because of the insights shared, the understandings gained, the congruence of expectations that is possible, and the reinforcing message of caring and concern that can be sent to the student. These can, in individual cases, be "make or break" messages that serve to keep a student in school. Some specific outcomes of improved parent-teacher communication include:

- Parents and teachers can come to share a common view of their joint educational mission
- Parents and teachers can team to diagnose a student's learning needs, strengths, and characteristics
- Parents and teachers can work together to develop a curriculum of the home to reinforce school learning and build on student strengths
- Parents and teachers can work together to describe desirable conditions in the learning environment

Strategy 4. Getting Help

1. Mapping curriculum and grade-level articulation

Learner objectives need to be well-defined and well-sequenced. This enables teachers to give planned and focused feedback on student progress and decreases incidents of gaps or redundancies in content and skills learned. Student mobility between schools or districts, teacher isolation, and limited opportunity for professional dialogue mitigate against the ideals of curriculum articulation. School/teacher assistance teams can monitor individual student progress and placements.

2. Planning for variety and student individual preference

Most teachers use only informal systems for collecting information to tailor their curriculum and instruction to particular students and groups. A few use formal inventories to relate curriculum and instruction to the most powerful interests and the best-developed skills their students have for processing and using information. Some instruments may be used to identify where the class or individuals have weak thinking or study skills; others inventory how students work together best, or reveal learning styles. Professional development sessions can offer strategies, materials, and training to address the needs of at–risk students.

1. Group learners in flexible rather than rigid patterns. Needs, abilities and interests are all legitimate bases for organizing classrooms for small group instruction. Vary the basis in order to avoid sameness and to stimulate interest.
2. Maximize opportunity for students to demonstrate their understanding of concepts. Ask questions frequently to keep a constant check on attention and learning. Insist that learners respond and participate.
3. Present material in short periods (five to fifteen minutes) with a change of activity between. Slow learners and low-achieving students often have difficulty concentrating for long periods.
4. Provide prompt feedback and help students establish connections and see relationships between major ideas.
5. Give clear and specific instructions. They can be given both orally and in writing. Repeat, if necessary, after monitoring the class for understanding.
6. Keep homework assignments brief and focused on practicing success. Both slow learners and low-achieving students often have trouble organizing or starting large tasks. They benefit more from practicing what they have mastered in class than in tackling new concepts for the first time.
7. Use homework assignments and class projects to reinforce study skills and learning-to-learn skills.
8. Gear whole group instruction to the lowest level of ability in the class. Proceed in small steps at a rapid pace. Aim for a student success rate of about 80% for the initial learning.

9. Isolate concepts so that they are presented in the most clear, simple, direct way. Abstractions and relationships may be difficult for the slow learner or low-achieving student requiring more concrete, manipulative learning experiences.

10. Help students develop reasoning skills through word problems, stories, and other problem-solving exercises. Lead them, by questions they can answer, down appropriate paths to a conclusion. Avoid letting them reach conclusions by "guessing" at correct answer.

11. Emphasize success, reward correct responses, and avoid reacting emotionally to an incorrect response or inappropriate behavior. Interact with students in a way that preserves and strengthens a person's self-image.

12. Concentrate on those aspects of the curriculum that are basic to further progress. It is better for slow learners to master a few skills than to try to cover a great many poorly.

13. It is frequently the teacher, not the curriculum or the material or the facility that is most important to the success of the slow learner or underachieving student. The personal interest in and nonjudgmental acceptance of the student that is demonstrated by the teacher is what sets the stage for the learning that takes place.

Jigsaw Expert Sheet

Guiding Questions

As you read the article on structuring for success strategies, consider the following questions to assist in sharing pertinent information with your home group. You may wish to jot notes on this sheet or highlight information in the article.

1. Describe the strategy.

2. How can the strategy help marginal learners?

3. How can the strategy be implemented by classroom teachers?

#1—Group Instructional Strategies

Direct Instruction

This method teaches skills directly through structured, teacher-identified activities that involve considerable drill and practice and a high level of teacher-student interaction. Direct instruction keeps the students on task with the assignment at hand. It provides for teacher input, immediate student response, practice, and reinforcement. Direct instruction cuts down on a great deal of disruptive behavior and allows for identification and remediation of students' misunderstandings before evaluation occurs.

Hands-on Activities

Providing students with concrete examples of skills being taught appears to help marginal students grasp concepts. One way to do this is by setting up skill labs, or learning centers, to provide hands-on experience. Provide centers with ideas to use, pictures, magazines, books, and other materials pertaining to the units being studied. Another method is to have students construct displays and bulletin boards for credit. By relating these projects to real-life situations, one can further attract the learner's attention to the concept. Interest brings on learning, and test scores improve as more projects are attempted.

For elementary grades, after you have taught a concept, have the class host a theme party based on that concept (e.g., eastern forests, outer space, wildlife). Have students design the invitations, make up party games, plan refreshments, and design decorations, all based upon facts they learned from the unit.

Language Arts Skill Development

Language arts skills, including reading, spelling, and writing, are often lacking in the marginal learner.

For teaching reading and writing to primary students, have them trace the words with their index fingers. Then have the learners trace the words with crayons.

Older students can create and write their own books, based upon the learning level of the individual student. The books should contain new vocabulary words and use correct grammar.

An effective instructional strategy for vocabulary enhancement involves students' vocabulary notebooks. Each student keeps a weekly, or daily, list of vocabulary words relevant to the ability level of that student. This list contains the correct spelling of each word, its part of speech, definition, and correct usage in a sentence.

A team game, "Vocabulary Blastoff," can be played using words taken from the vocabulary notebooks. The first person to correctly write a given word, list its part of speech, and/or write the definition on the chalkboard gets a possible three points for his, or her, own team. Points are awarded based on correct spelling, correct part of speech, and/or correct definition.

Homework Help

"At-risk" students often need assistance in completing homework correctly. To help students conquer homework assignments, allow them some time to begin such assignments in class. You can monitor any problems they are having and can clear up such problems before, not after, the assignment is completed.

Alternate evening homework assignments between math and language arts, have students write out a review of the math facts or reading words covered in class that day. This reinforces concepts taught each day.

Homework hotlines have been shown effective in helping children with their homework assignments. Some school districts and local education associations use public access channels for cable television to answer call-in questions regarding homework. Others man telephones, on a rotating basis, to provide assistance with homework.

Excerpted from Carrico, L., Gibbs, J., Ott, P., & Williamson, G. (1986). *KEA-AEL Tips for Teaching Marginal Learners.* Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

#2—Peer Tutoring

Peer tutoring is an instructional method that works effectively with marginal students by using peers to help understand directions and overcome problems. The peer tutor is often one of the at–risk student's own choosing. However, if the student does not seem to have a special rapport with any one student, the teacher matches up the peers. Care should be taken to pair partners who will be able to work together well. An adequate comfort level and a willingness to receive help from another student should be developed in the marginal students before initiating a peer tutoring system.

Employing peer tutoring yields many benefits:

- Gives the student a feeling of social acceptance and belonging, which often carries over outside the classroom situation;
- Allows the student one-on-one attention and assistance when the teacher is busy with another student; and
- Removes the stigma of being "the dummy" in the regular classroom.

Through funded programs, some teachers have established peer tutoring programs that enable peer tutors to be paid for their services. High school students are used as the tutors. Teachers work with the high school guidance counselors to find the tutors. The tutors meet with their "students" and are paid directly ($3.00 per 60– minute session, two sessions per week).

A Kentucky teacher matches up above-average students with students who are working below class average in particular areas. When the above-average students complete their assignments, they help the below-average students complete theirs. When assignments are finished, the pairs use flash cards to review the learning objective that was addressed.

In addition to pairing marginal learners with higher-achieving peers, several other methods of peer tutoring are possible:

- *Group students heterogeneously by performance level.* A Wyoming teacher groups students at tables of four, with at least one above-level student and one on-level student. They help one another in their academic work as well as in their behavior management.
- *Match at-risk students with younger students.* By putting at-risk students into a tutorial situation, they must pay close attention and must master the task at hand in order to help the younger students. This also encourages a greater sense of self-worth and accomplishment.
- *Use peer teams to work together on group assignments.* Teams of three or four students, heterogeneously grouped, can jointly solve a problem, research an idea or topic, complete a set of questions, etc. One student may be requested to submit a paper for the group, or each student may be asked to submit a copy of the group effort. This situation emphasizes the need for cooperation and reward for group effort. Each student is expected to contribute and participate in the group as an equal member. This differs somewhat from the traditional concept of peer tutoring, which sees one student as having more ability than another.

Excerpted from Carrico, L., Gibbs, J., Ott, P., & Williamson, G. (1986). *KEA-AEL Tips for Teaching Marginal Learners.* Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

#3—Individualized Instruction

Individualized instruction is an effective method for helping students at risk. It involves altering materials, assignments, and classroom management techniques to meet the needs and learning styles of individual children.

Learning Styles and Teaching Styles

Teachers should recognize and effectively apply the notion that not everyone learns through the same modalities/learning styles. An understanding of the operations of the left and right sides of the brain can give much insight into the learning styles of children. This understanding can also offer suggestions as to which methods can best be used to correct deficiencies in a student's learning. While some children learn best through the traditional learning modalities of sight and hearing, others are more adept at learning through kinesthetic or tactile activities. A positive classroom atmosphere provides for all these learning styles. Teachers should also be aware of their own instructional style. Adjustments to this teaching style may need to be made to adapt to the learning needs of the students. A variety of materials should be available for all the modalities. Students should be assessed to determine which modality is strongest for them (see "Assessment" section).

Individual Projects

Classes can be designed with the needs and abilities of the at-risk student in mind. One can also devise class and individual projects of interest to the marginal student.

Alternative Assignments

Assignments can be altered to meet the low level of ability of the student. Although all students use the same textbook, the assignments that follow can be adapted to allow for the individual levels of the students. At-risk students who are allowed to do shorter of less complicated assignments can still learn the required skill successfully without becoming frustrated by the enormous amount of time they must spend on the assignment. The implementation of individualization can be enhanced by color coding assignments on the chalkboard. In that way, the students can be self-directed. This gives the teacher more freedom.

Adaptive Materials

Special instructional help can be offered to marginal students through the use of adaptive materials. For example, audio tapes can be prepared by the teacher so that the student can review vocabulary or read along with the tape to complete a chapter assignment in a text. Microcomputer problem-solving software can be used for remediation on an individual basis. Other activities can include field trips, filmstrips, plays, and hands-on activities. These not only serve as remediation for the marginal student, who benefits from concrete examples and experiences, but also as enrichment for the grade-level ability student.

Team Teaching

Team teaching situations can provide increased individualized attention and instruction. Both special education and regular classroom teachers may team together. As an aside from this team teaching approach, special education teachers are an excellent resource for the regular teacher in planning the instructional program for the marginal student. The special education teacher can serve as a consultant in identification of skill deficits and the necessary task analysis to correct these deficits. The special education teacher can also suggest intervention models for discipline, reinforcement, etc. Using teacher aides in special education classrooms can free up the time of special education teachers of consultation with regular teachers.

Individualization of instruction is difficult to do at first; however, it can be accomplished. It allows students to do the work on a more flexible schedule and encourages in-depth work in areas of high interest to the individuals.

Excerpted from Carrico, L., Gibbs, J., Ott, P., & Williamson, G. (1986). *KEA-AEL Tips for Teaching Marginal Learners.* Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

#4—Interdisciplinary Learning—How Can Interdisciplinary Learning Help Marginal Learners?

Cognitive research gives us a powerful rationale for integrating the curricula to facilitate learning. Studies of teaching and human brain function suggest that holistic, integrated curriculum and instruction are more brain– compatible than fragmented curriculum models that shatter knowledge into isolated pieces. Studies point out that learning involves the entire organism and that the brain performs many functions simultaneously in its search for meaning (Fogarty, 1992).

Yet another impetus for curriculum integration is the need to address the issue of too much to teach and too little time in which to teach it. Recent reform efforts propose innovative curriculum models for cross–disciplinary instruction, real–life applications, and active learning processes that motivate students and develop student competencies. In addition, more authentic assessments mirror curriculum and instruction when students are required to demonstrate what they know and can do in a holistic manner.

In *The Link*, "Dissolving the Boundaries: A Team Approach to Curriculum Integration" (1994), Rebecca Burns states

> Dissolving the artificial boundaries that exist between traditional academic disciplines and between academic and vocational areas may be a necessary first step toward increasing student learning. When educators shift the focus of instruction from a discipline–based orientation to "real–life" issues, problems, and applications, students are more motivated to learn, and they become more active participants in their own learning. When teachers integrate their curricula, they reduce knowledge fragmentation and avoid duplication of skills and content. This enhances connection–making and in– depth understanding, and promotes mastery of the fundamental knowledge and skills—particularly higher–order thinking skills—that prepare students for life in the 21st century (p. 1).

Positive results of interdisciplinary teamed instruction cited by practitioners include improved student performance, motivation, interest, and participation. They describe greater enthusiasm for learning, increased participation in and completion of learning activities and assignments, better grasp of concepts and skills, more connections across disciplines, and fewer discipline problems (Burns, 1994).

Teachers who participated in a two–year project to assess the effects of interdisciplinary teamed instruction pilots in four Virginia high schools, noted advantages for themselves and their students (Burns, 1994, August). Teachers reported a new 'dialogue' among their colleagues across curriculums with an interest in and excitement about the possibilities for integration that provided students with more meaningful learning experiences. Feedback on their teaching performance from students helped teachers to think more about what students needed and less about what they wanted to 'tell' students.

The most frequently noted advantages for students were emphasis on skill development, greater student involvement, opportunities for student input, improved learning for all students, increased student responsibility, more group work, and more hands–on activities. Most teachers noted many positive changes in student performance in areas such as organization and on–task behavior. **Improved performance of low achievers in particular was noted.** They felt that student enthusiasm and involvement improved, as did group and communication skills. Increases in attendance and decreases in discipline problems were reported.

Administrators also reported that students showed significant improvement, greater interest in self–directed research and learning, better attendance, and fewer discipline referrals. Overall, students' attitudes and performance, **especially those** of lower-achieving students, appeared to be positively related to interdisciplinary units and activities (Burns, August, 1994).

Evidence overwhelmingly suggests that the advantages of interdisciplinary learning can be directly applicable to marginal learners and the behaviors teachers target for improvement.

What is Integrated Curricula?

Interdisciplinary curriculum and integrated curriculum are often synonymously used. Interdisciplinary curriculum is defined in the *Dictionary of Education* as "a curriculum organization which cuts across subject-matter lines to focus upon comprehensive life problems or broad based areas of study that brings together the various segments of the curriculum into meaningful association" (Good, 1973). Interdisciplinary curriculum combines several school subjects into one active project. That is how children encounter subjects in the real world—combined in one activity (Lake, 1994).

When integrating the curricula for interdisciplinary learning, the teacher makes connections and relationships obvious by interrelating units, topics, concepts, and skills. An integrated curriculum alleviates the problem of fragmented schedules and isolated skills and bits of knowledge. The learner makes personal connections, matching new information to prior knowledge and past experiences. Multiple perspectives on themes and life experience are encouraged.

Curriculum integration allows teachers and students to make sensible connections among subjects. Studying units on world geography in September and world climate in January is obviously fragmented. But reading Frank Asch's *Happy Birthday, Moon* (Simon and Schuster, 1982) while studying a unit on sound in science can help a first grader enjoy lessons about the mystery of echoes. Purposeful planning to integrate two or more disciplines promotes depth of learning by mutually reinforcing concepts and skills (Jacobs, 1991, p. 22).

Sources:

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Lake, K. (1993–94). Integrated curriculum. *School Improvement Research Series*, Series 8. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

#5—Interdisciplinary Learning—How is Curriculum Integrated?

Interdisciplinary unit ideas can be found in existing curriculum in the natural connections between required subject areas as well as in current events and student concerns or interests. Concepts identified for study are important within each discipline. Opportunities are created for indepth work and study both in and outside of school, contributing to student learning beyond the understanding of unit concepts; the development of positive attitudes toward learning; and personal growth. Jacobs (1991) suggests the following criteria for successful interdisciplinary unit design:

(1) common planning time among participating teachers;

(2) flexible scheduling and instructional space; and

(3) early examination of the yearly curriculum, mapping out monthly academics and identifying potential areas for interdisciplinary unit development (p. 23).

Integration occurs both **within** and **across** disciplines. Within each discipline, content has depth and breadth. Integration occurs as different subjects are explored **within** one discipline. For example, one math concept builds on another. Skills, themes, concepts, and topics are also integrated **across** disciplines as students link ideas from one subject to ideas in another subject.

The following description of curriculum integration models is adapted form Fogarty's 10–model continuum (1992, p. 35):

Model	Description	Example
Connected	Ideas are deliberately related within each discipline.	Teachers relate the concept of fractions to decimals, which in turn relates to money, grades, etc.
Nested	Multiple skills are targeted within each subject area: social, thinking, and content–specific.	Teachers design a unit on photosynthesis to simultaneously target consensus seeking (social), sequencing (thinking), and plant life (content).
Sequenced	Units are rearranged to coincide with one another and similar ideas are taught in concert.	In language arts, students read a historical novel depicting the same time period they are studying in social studies.
Shared	Planning and teaching occur in two disciplines with overlapping concepts as organizing elements.	In science and math, teachers use data collection, charting, and graphing as shared concepts in team teaching.
Webbed	A theme is webbed to curriculum contents and disciplines. The theme guides the selection of appropriate concepts, topics, ideas.	Teachers present a simple theme such as the circus and web it to various subject areas. Students read and write about related literature, do math problems about circus events, study circus history of other countries n social studies, and explore animal care and training in science.
Threaded	Thinking skills, social skills, multiple intelligences theory, technology, and study skills are threaded through various disciplines.	Teachers target prediction in reading, math, and science experiments and forecasting current events in social studies, threading prediction across disciplines.
Integrated	Major disciplines are blended by finding and matching the overlapping skills, concepts, and attitudes.	In whole language philosophy, reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills spring from a holistic, literature–based program. These skills can apply to the integrated study of a topic or concept, such as plant life or conflict, throughout all disciplines.

Sources:

Burns, R. (1994, August). *Interdisciplinary teamed instruction: Development and pilot test.* Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

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#6—Cooperative Learning—How Can Cooperative Learning Help Marginal Learners?

There has been increasing emphasis nationwide on the need to promote collaborative learning in the classroom. This increased emphasis is not surprising since, according to research, there is more evidence for the value of collaborative learning than any other aspect of education (Wood & Jones, p. 19).

Several trends become apparent in the research on cooperative learning, also known as student team learning. The principal goal of student team learning is to accelerate the achievement of all students. Research results consistently indicate achievement of this goal (Slavin, 1986). Positive effects have been shown on (1) achievement in all grade levels, groups and subject areas with minority–group students gaining more than their Anglo classmates in some cases; (2) intergroup relations between students of different races / ethnicities; (3) acceptance of mainstreamed handicapped students; and (4) self–esteem among students who feel more liked by their classmates and more successful academically (Casanova, 1990, p. 3).

Teachers can capitalize on the social needs of children and youth by using a variety of collaborative, or cooperative, learning techniques. Collaborative learning gives students an academic context for their peer group interactions. In addition, formulating responses in small groups provides an opportunity for risk–free practice that lessons the anxiety of classroom recitation. Collaborative strategies can help students working in pairs or small groups to understand the processes involved in solving problems based on two assumptions: some students may need more time to learn a difficult concept, and students generally learn best from each other. Through observation of individuals within groups and group interaction, teachers are able to determine what is or is not known, adjust instruction, and monitor progress. Students can develop a common data base and review, evaluate, or synthesize information while self– and peer evaluating in cooperative groups (Wood and Jones, 1994).

Marginal learners often experience rejection of their ideas, or exclusion from groups resulting in fewer interactions and a decline in intellectual development. In cooperative learning activities, the teacher can point out to students that completion of a group task requires multiple abilities and that every learner will excel in some way. The teacher can reverse negative perceptions by acknowledging the capabilities of all students. When students believe that the group's success depends on the responses of all members, marginal learners will be included by peers as they probe for contributions from each other (Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools, Spring 1992).

Cooperative learning has gained increasing acceptance as a means to enhance achievement for all students, and especially marginal learners, on both basic skills and higher order thinking, promote productive social behavior, and improve racial and ethnic harmony. It can foster equal–status interaction among students who differ in status due to income, ethnicity, race, or perceived ability. In addition, it provides a practical strategy for managing classes with wide ranges of academic achievement (Center on Organization and Restructuring of School, Spring 1992).

What is Cooperative Learning?

In cooperative learning, students work together toward a common goal in a group small enough that everyone can participate. Students work on a task that has been clearly described and assigned, using specific behaviors and procedures that have been thoroughly taught, modeled, and practiced. Students are expected to carry out their task without direct interference from the teacher. It is intended that group processes facilitate critical thinking and discussion, cooperative behavior, and equitable interaction between and among students from varied backgrounds and achievement levels.

Cooperative learning contrasts with traditional, individualistic instruction in the following ways:

Cooperative Learning Groups	Traditional Learning Groups
Positive interdependence	No interdependence
Individual accountability	No individual accountability
Heterogeneous	Homogenous
Shared leadership	One leader
Shared responsibility for learning of all group members	Responsibility only for self
Task and maintenance emphasized	Only task emphasized
Social skills directly taught	Social skills assumed and ignored
Teacher observes and intervenes functioning only as needed	Teacher ignores group until a problem occurs
Groups process their effectiveness with self– and peer evaluation	No group processing or self–evaluation

Adapted from Johnson, D., Johnson, R., Holubee, E., & Roy, P. (1984). *Circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom*, p. 24. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Student Team Learning techniques developed and researched at Johns Hopkins University can be used as permanent means of organizing the classroom to effectively teach a wide variety of subjects at any grade level from two through college. Four methods have been extensively developed and researched. They are **Student Teams—Achievement Divisions (STAD), Teams–Games– Tournament (TGT), Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI), and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)**. The first two are general cooperative learning methods adaptable to most subjects and grade levels. The remaining two techniques are comprehensive curricula designed for use in mathematics for grades 3–6 and reading and writing for grades 3–5, respectively.

Success for All is a schoolwide program, also from Johns Hopkins, for grades pre–K through 5 that strives to ensure that every child will be performing at grade level in reading, writing, and math by third grade and will be able to maintain grade level. They all incorporate team rewards, individual accountability, and equal opportunities for success. Equal opportunities for success means that each student contributes to the team by improving over past performance; thus ensuring that high, average, and low achievers are equally challenged to do their best, and that the contributions of all team members will be valued (Slavin, 1986). For further information on these cooperative learning techniques and programs, see Slavin's manual, *Using Student Team Learning*; or contact Robert Slavin or Nancy Madden, Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, MD 21218, 410/516–0274.

Other cooperative learning techniques include Think–Pair– Share, Jigsaw II, and Group Investigations. **Think–Pair–Share** (Kagan, 1990) is a discussion cycle in which students first listen to a question, presentation, or set of task instructions. Second, they are given time to think individually about the problem. Third, they are asked to pair up for discussion and then share their responses with the class as a whole. The teacher can cue or signal (through a pointer, an arrow, a timer, etc.) each of the four phases. For Jigsaw directions, see the Module 1, Activity 2 handout of this training manual. **Group Investigations** are structured to emphasize higher-order thinking skills such as analysis and evaluation. Students work to produce a group project, which they may have selected (Martin, 1992).

Sources:

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#7—Cooperative Learning—How Are Cooperative Learning Groups Established?

Johnson, Johnson, Holubee, and Roy (1984) state that every cooperative learning task is formulated around the following components:

(1) academic and social skills objectives,

(2) positive interdependence,

(3) individual accountability, and

(4) criteria for success (p. 23).

Social skills can include moving into groups; staying with the group; talking quietly; taking turns; sharing materials; listening; praising; encouraging; checking for understanding; offering ideas, asking for help; criticizing ideas, not the person; paraphrasing; summarizing; challenging; or reaching consensus.

Types of **positive interdependence** for a task can include one paper from the group; each member receives the same reward; one set of materials to share; fantasy interdependence ("we are surrounded by alligators..."); desks clustered, table, etc.; group roles; a job for each person; team name, song, logo; outside–enemy or threat, real or imagined; group evaluation forms; or only part of the information given to each team member (Jigsaw).

Individual accountability may be ensured by signatures; individual quiz; test; random selection of one paper from the group for grading; random oral quizzing; individual homework; or peer editing.

The **criteria for success** in a cooperative lesson should be clearly identified and communicated by the teacher to students before the lesson, then checked and reinforced during and after the lesson (Johnson, Johnson, Holubee, & Roy, 1984, pp. 47–50). For example:

(1) The group product must include...

(2) The group product must use the format of...

(3) Resources must include...

(4) The final product must look like...

(5) Group members must use "six inch voices" during group work (voices can only be heard from within a six inch proximity).

(6) All members must contribute (time, ideas, research, feedback to group, a specific part of the product, etc.) and sign the product.

(7) A score of 80 is required of all students on the quiz.

Task, reward, and accountability are part of every learning system, individualistic or cooperative. The difference is in how each learning system uses the components. In cooperative groups, one objective is to improve each member's skills. Group members are responsible for the discovery and teaching of information to all members of the group. A newsletter, bulletin board, or joint product may serve to recognize team improvement. While groups are recognized, individual tests keep students accountable for their learning. There is no way for a student to become dependent on the work of more productive or able students (Casanova, Berliner, Placier, & Powell, 1990). Therefore, cooperative learning results in achievement gains through a combination of **group rewards and individual accountability**.

It is important to motivate students who can do the task independently to assist those who may be having difficulty. One way to persuade group members to help their peers is to make the group reward contingent on the performance of each individual member. The group is held accountable by earning a group score after the test based on the improvement of each individual's score over the previous test score. Fostering this positive interdependence requires an investment in the development of interpersonal skills. One classroom uses a poster as a reminder: "You have the right to ask anyone for help. You have the duty to assist anyone who asks" (Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools, 1992, p.3).

If students are to participate in high–level interactions, particularly verbal, they require direct instruction on specific skills for discourse, provided in advance of cooperative learning and through direct assistance during group operation. Farivar and Webb (1994) suggest four stages of preparation for effective group work:

(1) **Class-building**—becoming acquainted with other students, learning classmates' names and interests, and feeling comfortable in class;

(2) **Learning how to work with others**—

    a. **basic communication skills with norms for behavior**—listening attentively; not using put-downs; speaking politely; participating equally; and understanding the difference between cooperation, competition, and individual work;

    b. **team building**—becoming acquainted with teammates, learning commonalities, feeling comfortable in the team, developing cohesion;

    c. **small-group social skills**—articulating ideas, talking about the group's work, sharing ideas and information, encouraging teammates to talk and participate;

(3) **Communication and cooperation skills**—understanding the value of two-way communication, sharing the talking and directing, using teammates as resources, working as a group without depending on the teacher; and

(4) **Helping skills**—checking each other's understanding and accuracy of work, giving specific feedback, giving explanations, persisting in asking for help (p. 52).

The teacher identifies specific behaviors, procedures, and products **(criteria for success)** required for successful completion. He/she then explains and demonstrates each criterium to students. Roles may be assigned to group members to ensure that skills and procedure are used in each group. Roles can include leader, praiser, encourager, material manager, recorder, reporter, etc. The class practices the desired social skills, roles, and procedures before working in groups. The class may be directed to describe and record what each role or skill "looks" and "sounds" like prior to practice. The teacher and students can monitor use of skills and evaluate group and individual efforts during and after group work.

Evaluation of group processing strategies can take the form of questions answered after an activity. Teams or individuals evaluate their progress by reflecting on experiences and responding. Responses to a group form are agreed upon by team members, the form is filled in, and it is then initialed by all. The individual form can be helpful when groups are having problems since areas needing improvement become apparent and are addressed. For example, questions derived from the criteria for success may require students to reflect on how often (often, sometimes, seldom) they contributed ideas, listened to each other, encouraged each other, or built on each other's ideas (Strohl, M. & Schneck, S., 1991).

Sources:

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#8—Service Learning—How Can Service Learning Help Marginal Learners?

In its 1993 report, the Commission on National and Community Service describes the United States as entering a new, post–Cold War era in which citizens are most concerned about difficult domestic problems—economic performance, violence and drugs, racial and class division, poverty; and a cycle of children unprepared to learn, enrolled in schools unable to teach them, and often parents themselves in circumstances so dire that their children are caught up in the cycle as well. The Commission's report suggests that an important part of this generation's answer to these social dilemmas will again be community service, 32 years after President John F. Kennedy issued the challenge for Americans to ask, "What can I do for my country?" (p. viii).

People want to help others in specific ways and want to be respected for their contributions. The structure of service learning can develop and channel the energy and talents of young people in productive and educational directions that lead to self–esteem, learning, cooperation, and citizenship, paying life–long dividends to society. Those who provide services develop their own knowledge, skills, and character, build new relationships, escape the bystander's sense of pessimism and powerlessness, and gain a sense of personal worth and meaning, thus making a positive difference in their own lives as well (Commission on National and Community Service, 1993).

One of the greatest strengths of service learning is growth in learning for students who have a history of not performing well in school. Motivation toward higher academic expectations and a deeper connection to school and community result from seeing themselves as able to contribute to larger causes. As students realize they are needed and capable, their self–confidence grows and school becomes more relevant to their lives.

Service learning builds on the application and integration of knowledge within a meaningful context. The development of new performance–based assessments, at all levels and as graduation requirements, necessitates a re–evaluation of current curriculum and an expansion of methods for gathering evidence of student learning. Service learning can provide additional and varied opportunities for learning and demonstrating competencies.

Shumer (1993) gives the following advantages and benefits of service learning for students:

- authentic learning through real–world applications
- increased motivation for project–related task completion
- improved school attendance
- increased sensitivity to people who are different
- increased motivation for basic skills work, such as writing
- improved ability to communicate with others and own family
- loss of fear in dealing with people who are different
- increased awareness of social concerns
- improved self–confidence
- enhanced self–awareness
- development of leadership skills
- increased assumption of leadership roles
- new respect from community members
- heightened self–esteem
- improved problem solving and other higher level thinking skills
- increased respect for one another
- expanded and enriched curriculum
- expanded opportunities to explore career options
- expanded learning opportunities accommodating various learning styles

McPherson (1991) states that a well–designed service learning program decreases the number of dropouts by allowing students to see more relevance in schooling. Others echo similar sentiments. "Although the schools, the communities, and the state gain a great deal from youth service, it is the young people themselves who gain the greatest benefit. And it is 'youth at risk' of dropping out of school who stand to reap the greatest benefits of all" (1991).

What is Service Learning?

As the 21st century approaches, Presidents Bush and Clinton have both stressed the importance of volunteer service for children, youth, and adults. To provide technical assistance, encourage and reward volunteer activity, and focus on the importance of caring, responsible citizenship, President Bush in 1990 established the Points of Light Foundation. Challenging today's youth to become engaged in meaningful service, President Clinton said, "In serving, we recognize a simple but powerful truth: We need each other. And we must care for each other." State legislatures are also underscoring the importance of encouraging students to supply classroom learning to real–life experiences and are mandating, as part of education reform, the inclusion of service learning in the curriculum. For example, the fourth Learning Goal of the Kentucky Education Reform Act (KERA) requires that "all students will be able to become responsible members of a family, work group, or community including the demonstration of effectiveness in community service" (Kentucky Department of Education, 1994, p. 9).

Service learning is a school or classroom–based program in which students:

(1) apply classroom learning to meet identified community needs in organized service experiences that are coordinated in collaboration with the school and community;

(2) reflect on and analyze their service experiences in relation to the academic curriculum by thinking, talking, or writing about what they did and saw during the service activity;

(3) realize their personal value as individuals and as members of the community; and

(4) extend learning beyond the classroom and into the community to foster the development of a sense of caring for others (Cairn, R. W. & Keilsmeier, J. C., 1991).

Service learning differs from traditional community service *volunteerism* in its direct tie to school learning objectives and curriculum and in structured student reflection activities. Reflection on the experience of service activities is integrated into the curriculum of study. It enhances the students' citizenship, social science skills, and communication skills.

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#9 Service Learning—How is Service Learning Implemented?

Crowley and Sawyer in Jefferson County Public School's *Partners in Anti–Drug Learning Skills* (1993), describe 10 critical elements of service learning programs:

(1) involvement of at–risk youth—develops feelings of being valued and needed. The best way to serve at– risk youth is to require them to serve others;

(2) empowerment of participants—allows them to become leaders capable of changing their schools and communities;

(3) linkage of service to academic subjects—expands learning possibilities and infuses lessons with real meaning;

(4) involvement of the community in the development of the program—ensures that real needs are being met;

(5) engagement of students in the development of the initial proposal and in overall decisionmaking—motivates learning and builds confidence and self–esteem;

(6) reinforcement of major learning goals—develops capable and committed citizens, etc.;

(7) involvement and support—involves all stakeholders: students, teachers, administrators, community members, and parents;

(8) establishment of clear service learning objectives and methods for assessing their attainment—addresses accountability;

(9) creation of a service ethic in the school and community—offers a wide range of service opportunities, recognition, incentives, youth leadership, and parent involvement; and

(10) generation of excitement among children and youth—provides a positive outlet for their energy by motivating students to become involved in and serve the community (p. 7).

Options for including service learning in the classroom curriculum can include contributing products, teaching others, providing a service, and addressing a social issue. Teachers can incorporate service into specific classes by (1) **contributing student products** to recipients of service. Art projects might beautify senior centers, stories can be written for younger students, and science classes can plant flowers or trees in the community. (2) **Students can teach** younger students or provide demonstrations, information, or tours to community members and area visitors. (3) Chores can be done for the elderly, infirm, or hospitalized; homes built for the homeless; roads and streams cleaned up; recycling centers operated; or soup kitchens manned to **provide a service to the community**. (4) **Social issues may be addressed** by developing plans for reducing hunger in the community, lobbying for adequate day care, or assisting in a funding drive to keep a local library open.

Several content areas can be integrated instead of adding another piece to the already overcrowded curriculum. Service learning projects can demonstrate a variety of skills. Instruction can be organized around key issues in the community. Teachers can team for instruction and service around an issue. A social studies project might combine reading, language arts, research, mathematics and writing skills with local history and geography.

Time for service learning project planning and work can be created by employing before and after school time slots, blocks scheduling, teaming, summer projects, seniors' last month projects, the sharing of program responsibility with community organizations, required class credit, and a service learning coordinator.

To link curriculum and course content with service experiences, the National Youth Leadership Council (Cairn and Kielsmeier, Editors) recommend the following six–step process for planning:

(1) Clarify important learning objectives appropriate for a service learning project.

(2) Infuse service by teaching, reinforcing, or demonstrating skills through service experiences (as in the ideas above).

(3) Outline a plan of action for a project appropriate for the students, the community, and the teacher.

(4) Plan strategically for transportation, scheduling, liability, administrative support, supplies, equipment, training and preparation of students, involving students in the planning, roles and responsibilities, etc. Develop a specific time line with designation of responsibilities.

(5) Plan for evaluation of the success of the project and student demonstration of mastery of the learning objectives. Assess attitude, products, and performance with teacher, peer, self–, and recipient feedback. Attendance at the service task should be treated just as a job would be. Written work can be required and evaluated for content and writing skills. Videos, artwork, computer work, brochures, data collection, and other products can demonstrate serious thought and effort. Pre– and post tests may be helpful in evaluating progress. Plan for structured student reflection on service experience in journals, discussion, or products.

(6) Celebrate with your students. Plan with them for a culminating activity and exhibition of their project to help them see the value of their work. Organize school assemblies, small group get–togethers, certificates, buttons, media coverage, etc. (p. 43).

When implementing a service learning project, be sure to monitor student learning and interest by actively listening to comments and reflections, then revise the program as appropriate. Seek ongoing feedback and assessment of the project from recipients for an accurate picture of how the community receives the project. Keep other school personnel and parents informed about program progress while recognizing and encouraging their support. And most importantly, provide positive feedback to students whenever appropriate to assist them in recognizing personal success.

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Positive Reinforcement

Supplemental Information to Praise/Reproof in "Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement"

Time spent giving students some successes will be repaid by their increased self-concepts. In turn, their fear of failure—which probably has been reinforced often—will decrease. Some suggestions follow for positively reinforcing students:

- Reward students for what they do, not for what they don't do.
- Develop personal relationships with the students.
- Use motivational projects to encourage students. Build upon the interests of individual students.
- Display projects for parents or classmates to see.
- Offer positive comments and praise.
- Plan for success. Make an extra effort for students to accomplish tasks and enhance their self-esteem.
- Use a variety of rewards, include stickers, extra computer time, lunch or dinner with the teacher, and positive notes to parents and/or the student.

Excerpted from Carrico, L., Gibbs, J., Ott, P., & Williamson, G. (1986). *KEA-AEL Tips for Teaching Marginal Learners*. (1986). Charleston, WV: Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

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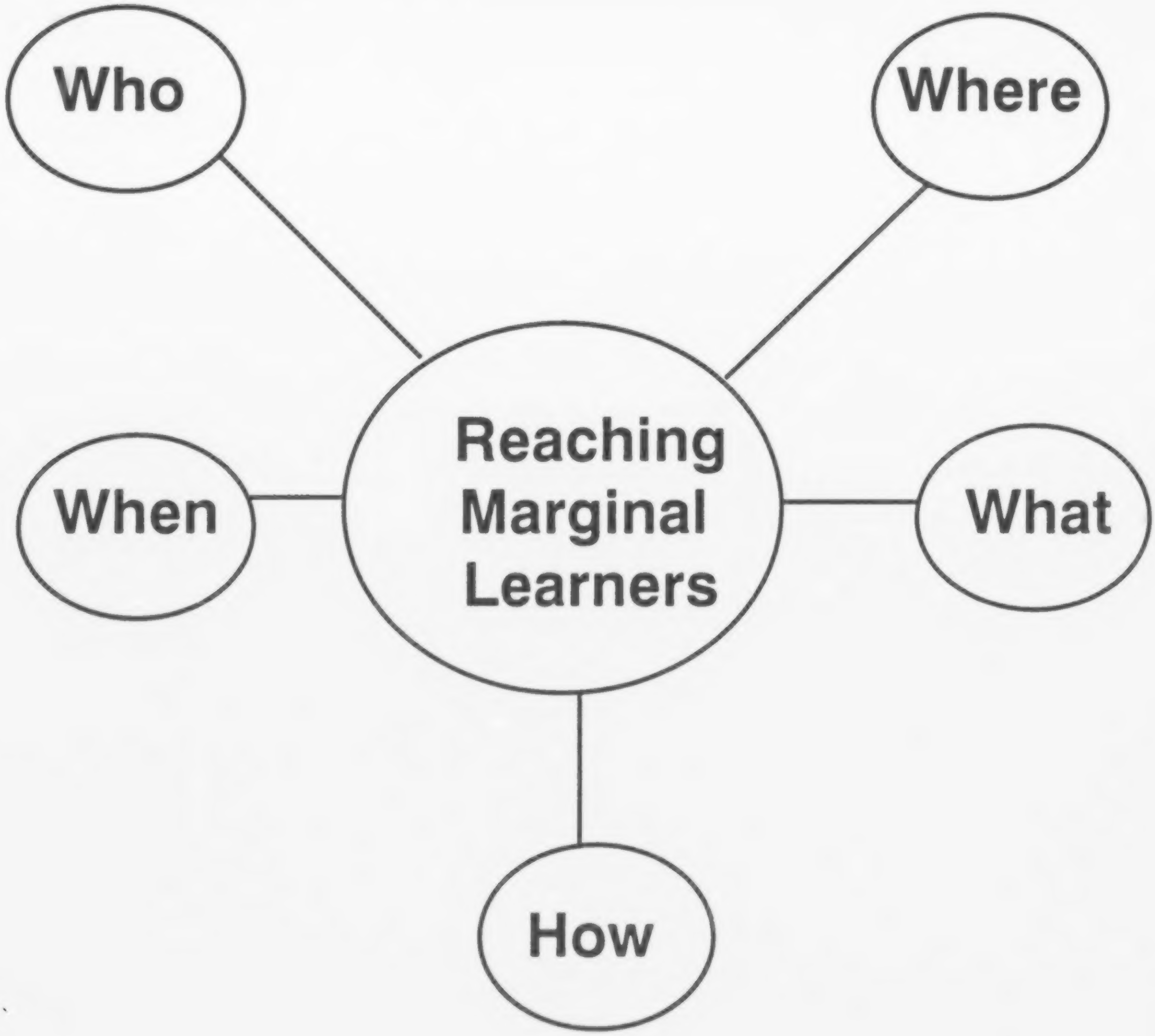

Who
Where
Reaching Marginal Learners
When
What
How

Supplying the Necessary Skills: Things Teachers Can Do to Help Students Learn

1. **Provide students with a course outline and refer to it often.** The outline helps give a sense of the whole. The outline can help students see how knowledge or skills learned are cumulative, repeated throughout the year or are sequenced in such a way as to represent "clean slates" and new beginnings.

2. **Announce the purpose of the particular teaching technique** you have selected at the beginning of each class. Will you be using the class time to highlight the important parts of last night's reading? To explain facts and ideas that may have been missed or that were particularly difficult? To challenge their thinking by having students express their own ideas on the topic? By signaling the purpose of the daily activity, your students will have a better and more immediate context for listening, reading, and speaking—the basic processes for learning the concepts you are teaching.

3. **Help your students recognize and interpret the predictable patterns or structures in the textbooks you use** in your content area. For some subjects, this might be vocabulary terms. For others, it may be symbols or formulas. Other content areas may require extensive use of learning from graphs, tables, charts, diagrams, drawings, or photographs. Make explicit how you want them to use these structures or how to learn from them if they are embedded in the student text or are a fundamental part of classroom instructional activity. Just because vocabulary terms are in italics or boldface, or because the student workbook features graphs or photographs, doesn't mean that your students know how or when to use them. Many students report that they thought the publishers put them there to take up space.

4. **Provide your students with a framework to decrease total reading/study time and to increase comprehension.** Several systems have been developed and disseminated widely, including SQ3R, OK4R, PANORAMA, REAP, PQRST, and OARWET.

Example of Successful Practice

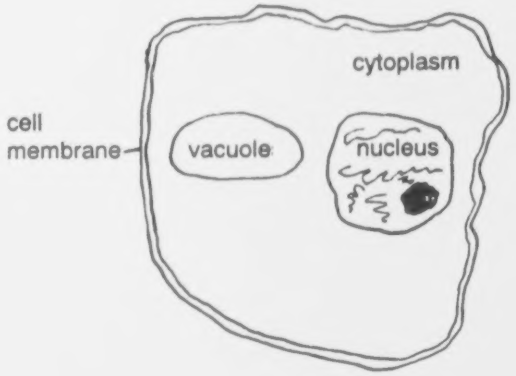
SQ3R	Survey, Question, Read, Review, Recite
OK4R	Overview, Key Ideas, Read, Rite, Relate, Review
PQRST	Preview, Question, Read, State, Test

5. **When conducting teacher-led activities, give teacher-led clues.** Some teachers distribute an outline of lecture information. Others write the outline on the chalkboard as they go. A few even move to different locations in the classroom to signal a shift from major topic to subordinate topic in conveying a hierarchy of ideas.

6. **Employ concept mapping or diagrams to visually reinforce the relationships between ideas, events, items.**

Example of Successful Practice

Parts of a Cell



7. **Share some time-tested techniques for note-taking during lectures or reading assignments,** and encourage students to share their own tips and tools with others in the class. Keep a few study guides or "speedwriting" books on hand to illustrate specific examples.

Example of Successful Practice

Active Reading

a. Reading aloud
b. Underling key words
c. Making notes in the margins

Inventive Note-Taking

a. Abbreviating longer words, i.e., increase = inc. or using a 'g' for "ing".
b. Eliminating vowels that can disappear without the words being mistaken for others.
c. Inventing your own abbreviations.

8. **Encourage students to do their homework in the same place and at the same time each day.** Research on learning shows that this saves time and that students will actually remember more of what they are studying. You don't have to get into the story of Pavlov's dogs to make your point about mental "conditioning."

Examples of Successful Practice

1. Good lighting
2. Comfortable chair
3. Clear working surface
4. Books and tools at hand
5. No distractions

9. **Illustrate the research on brain interference.** A study showed that college students who studied with music in the background got better grades after the music was turned off. More brain interference can be eliminated by organizing, so that the necessary tools and materials are ready in advance. Emotional sources of brain interference, however, are less easily put into compartments.

10. **Space out your teaching** so that student learning is reinforced by subconscious activity between sessions. A series of small steps, distributed in increments over time, that leads to a culminating activity or learning level, works better than "dumping the whole bale of hay at one feeding."

11. **Check on student notes and homework assignments.** This not only establishes another incentive for attention and accuracy, but allows you to detect and perhaps even diagnose sources of some learning difficulties. The muscular activity of note-taking also increases the retention of terms and concepts. Research has shown that students who try to listen without taking notes and "write down the important ideas later" do less well on tests than students who take notes in class. Further, students who revise or rewrite their notes after class do even better than those who do not.

12. **Design ways for students to "see it and say it"** in class. Let them know they are deliberately combining sight and sound to help themselves learn. Cooperative learning techniques and active student participation techniques that have students share visual images of concepts or combine motor activity (writing, signaling) with auditory and visual activity are a triple combination.

13. **Apply the KISS technique** (Keep It Short and Simple) in designing lessons. In the classroom, this means providing for several different activities (a lecturette, followed by student discussion, followed by an independent writing assignment) rather than a single technique. At home or in the study hall, this means making time for study breaks—breaks that serve as rewards for completing a certain amount of work, or to eliminate brain interference by providing an interval between two different subjects.

14. **Model and use memorization techniques** to help your students remember complex details. Several books are available on this topic, and many techniques, once learned, can be applied to personal problem-solving as well as learning academic subjects.

Examples of Successful Practice

a. Word association—linking the concept to be learned to a word you do remember.
b. Visualization—linking the concept to be learned to a powerful image or picture that has significance to you.
c. Sound out to employ rhyme and rhythm—wrapping the concept to be learned in an easily recalled couplet or pattern.
d. Countdown—linking the concept to be learned to a known number of slots or bins.
e. Abbreviations or Acronyms—linking the concept to be learned to the first letters of an easily recalled sentence or outline.

15. **State your directions precisely**. Below are a list of conventional terms used in workbook activities, study guides, homework assignments, and classroom instruction. The same words can have different meaning for different people.

Examples of Successful Practice

Name	List, tell, enumerate. Give only the information asked for, using key words or phrases.
Summarize	Give the main points or ideas.
Outline	Present the main ideas and subideas.
Define	Give the meaning.
Describe	Give the attributes, characteristics, qualities.
Illustrate	Give specific, concrete examples.
Justify	State the facts that prove why something is true.
Prove	Show that something is true and that the opposite is false.
Discuss	Examine from all angles and review.
Compare	Show how two things are the same.
Contrast	Just show how two things differ.
Evaluate	State your opinion as to the advantages and disadvantages.
Criticize	Examine the pros and cons and give your judgment.
Explain	Show, in a logical sequence, how or why something happened.

16. **Encourage participation in study groups**. You may already do this in your classroom through cooperative learning activities. When students, who have already learned the basic material, group together to discuss the facts and ideas, the learnings are reinforced and the relationships between facts become more evident. Study groups can help participants prepare for class discussions, oral tests, or specimen examinations.

17. **Provide opportunities to practice** "organizing for learning" as part of your daily instructional sequence.

Examples of Successful Practice

a. Spending only part of each day on a given topic, rather than teaching it all at once.
b. Setting goals for the daily lesson out loud, and assessing how close the class was able to achieve the goal at the end.
c. Keeping tools and supplies accessible and organized.
d. Placing documents in files.
e. Retrieving documents from files.
e. Creating indices to files.

18. **Leave time in each class to respond to student questions.** At the end of a short presentation, you might pause, and ask "Now, what kind of information might I have left out that you will need to know to really understand this concept?" Too many teachers pause abruptly, look at their watches impatiently, and ask "Any questions?" without really expecting or wanting any. Students may also need to be coached in their question-asking techniques.

Examples of Successful Practice

a. Asking open-ended questions vs. closed questions.
b. Questions that seek clarifying information.
c. Questions that probe intentions.
d. Questions that probe feelings.
e. Questions that explore underlying values, principles, ideals.
f. Questions that challenge methods, rules, procedures.
g. Questions that challenge arguments, reasoning, positions.

19. **Help your students prepare to take your tests.**

Examples of Successful Practice

a. Announce your test and quiz schedule early and keep giving regular reminders about approaching deadlines or changes.
b. Make your testing formats known. Do you include essay items? Bonus questions? Multiple choice? True and false items? Sentence completion items? Fill in the blanks? Matching items? Short answer questions? Specimen or practical skills check items?
c. Be clear about what is important and what students should use to study. Will the bulk of the test items be drawn from their classroom notes? Workbook exercises? Textbook readings? Laboratory exercises? Field experiences? Helping them spend their time wisely is not giving away the store.

20. **Acknowledge the symptoms of test anxiety and help individuals deal with it.** Test anxiety is more common than we think. Symptoms include physical tenseness, rigidity, nervous twitching, hyperventilation, light-headedness, dizziness, and mental "blocking" which students call "choking," or "freezing." The results are incomplete tests, unanswered items, and unhappy students.

Examples of Successful Practice

a. Exercising before a test to keep relaxed.
b. Breathing deeply and slowly.
c. Cultivating a positive mental attitude.
d. Preparing thoroughly.

21. **Coach your students in test-taking techniques.**

Examples of Successful Practice

a. Dressing comfortably.
b. Sitting where they can see the instructor and hear instructions or questions.
c. Selecting a chair or table that fits.
d. Reading the test directions for each section carefully.
e. Scanning the items or sections first to gauge how to use time well.
f. Answering easy items first.
g. Leaving room for later additions or revisions.
h. Making reasonable guesses is better than leaving an item blank.
i. Double checking that all items have been seen and answered.
j. Not checking what other students are doing.

22. **Give your students guidelines for writing essays and reports.**

Examples of Successful Practice

Guidelines for Writing Assignments

a. Analyzing the purpose of the assignment.
b. Asking the critical questions.
c. Having a step-by-step sequence for developing the paper.
  - Selecting the topic
  - Developing relevant components
  - Conducting the necessary research
  - Developing an outline
  - Writing a first draft
  - Preparing the final version
  - Handing it in on time
d. Allowing time for revision.
e. Using brainstorming to generate ideas.
f. Writing to an outline.
g. Conducting research at a library.
h. Consulting a librarian.
i. Citing several sources.
j. Making bibliographic entries.
k. Putting distance between yourself and your work before reviewing and revising.
l. Asking for peer review.
m. Using headings and indentations to guide the reader.

23. **Provide opportunities for your students to practice effective listening techniques.** Good listening is more than taking turns speaking. It requires careful attention to the other person and letting the other person know that you have correctly received both the content and feeling in the message.

Examples of Successful Practice

Effective Listening

1. Tune in to the topic by considering what you already know about it.
2. Attend to the speaker by facing them directly and making good eye contact.
3. Concentrate on receiving new information.
4. Identify the content (information) they are trying to convey. Note main points, small points, relationships.
5. Detect the context (feeling or tone) of the message? Are they angry? Trying to be helpful, persuasive, or humorous? What is their point of view?
6. Check for understanding. Summarize what they say and how you sense they feel about it.

24. **Provide opportunities for students to practice solving problems** in your content area or at your grade level. The problems should be relevant to the concepts being learned and use of the problem-solving model must be assessed along with the content learned.

Examples of Successful Practice

A Six-Step Problem Solving Model

1. Identify and define the problem.
2. Generate alternative solutions.
3. Evaluate the alternatives.
4. Make the decision.
5. Implement the selected solution.
6. Evaluate the effectiveness of the solution as implemented.

25. **Model effective conflict resolution strategies** in the classroom. At the heart of effective conflict resolution is an understanding of the other person's position and interests. This requires effective listening skills as well as an honest and trusting attitude toward the other person. We all too frequently detect their "position" and then make assumptions about their "interests" without checking out our interpretations to see if either are based on facts. A lot of conflict also stems from a reluctance to tell people what we really expect of them, but holding them accountable anyway.

Examples of Successful Practice

The Three-Part Message
(used to assertively confront negative
behaviors of others)

1. WHEN YOU.....(state, specifically and concretely, the behavior you see)
2. I FEEL....(describe accurately, how you feel as a result of their behavior)
3. BECAUSE.....(state the impact or consequence of their behavior on the relationship, conditions, circumstances)

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Accommodating Marginal Leaders in the Regular Classroom: A Summary of Effective Practices

1. Group learners in flexible rather than rigid patterns. Needs, abilities and interests are all legitimate bases for organizing classrooms for small group instruction. Vary the basis in order to avoid sameness and to stimulate interest.

2. Maximize opportunity for students to demonstrate their understanding of concepts. Ask questions frequently to keep a constant check on attention and learning. Insist that learners respond and participate.

3. Present material in short periods (five to fifteen minutes) with a change of activity between. Slow learners and low-achieving students often have difficulty concentrating for long periods.

4. Provide prompt feedback and help students establish connections and see relationships between major ideas.

5. Give clear and specific instructions. They can be given both orally and in writing. Repeat, if necessary, after monitoring the class for understanding.

6. Keep homework assignments brief and focused on practicing success. Both slow learners and low-achieving students often have trouble organizing or starting large tasks. They benefit more from practicing what they have mastered in class than in tackling new concepts for the first time.

7. Use homework assignments and class projects to reinforce study skills and learning-to-learn skills.

8. Gear whole group instruction to the lowest level of ability in the class. Proceed in small steps at a rapid pace. Aim for a student success rate of about 80% for the initial learning.

9. Isolate concepts so that they are presented in the most clear, simple, direct way. Abstractions and relationships may be difficult for the slow learner or low-achieving student requiring more concrete, manipulative learning experiences.

10. Help students develop reasoning skills through word problems, stories, and other problem-solving exercises. Lead them, by questions they can answer, down appropriate paths to a conclusion. Avoid letting them reach conclusions by "guessing" at correct answer.

11. Emphasize success, reward correct responses, and avoid reacting emotionally to an incorrect response or inappropriate behavior. Interact with students in a way that preserves and strengthens a person's self-image.

12. Concentrate on those aspects of the curriculum that are basic to further progress. It is better for slow learners to master a few skills than to try to cover a great many poorly.

13. It is frequently the teacher, not the curriculum or the material or the facility that is most important to the success of the slow learner or underachieving student. The personal interest in and nonjudgmental acceptance of the student that is demonstrated by the teacher is what sets the stage for the learning that takes place.

TEACHING CHILDREN WITH ATTENTION DEFICIT DISORDER

Defining Attention Deficit Disorders (ADD)

Attention deficit disorder is a syndrome characterized by serious and persistent difficulties in the following three specific areas:

1. Attention span.
2. Impulse control.
3. Hyperactivity (sometimes).

ADD is a chronic disorder that can begin in infancy and extend through adulthood, having negative effects on a child's life at home, school, and within the community. It is conservatively estimated that 3 to 5% of our school-age population is affected by ADD.

The condition previously fell under the headings, "learning disabled," "brain damaged," "hyperkinetic," or "hyperactive." The term *attention deficit disorder* was introduced to describe the characteristics of these children more clearly.

There are two types of attention deficit disorder, both of which are described below.

Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

According to the criteria in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (3rd ed., rev.) (American Psychiatric Association, 1987), to be diagnosed as having ADHD a child must display, for 6 months or more, at least eight of the following characteristics prior to the age of 7:

1. Fidgets, squirms or seems restless.
2. Has difficulty remaining seated.
3. Is easily distracted.
4. Has difficulty awaiting turn.
5. Blurts out answers.
6. Has difficulty following instructions.
7. Has difficulty sustaining attention.
8. Shifts from one uncompleted task to another.
9. Has difficulty playing quietly.
10. Talks excessively.
11. Interrupts or intrudes on others.
12. Does not seem to listen.
13. Often loses things necessary for tasks.
14. Frequently engages in dangerous actions.

Undifferentiated Attention Deficit Disorder

In this form of ADD the primary and most significant characteristic is inattentiveness; hyperactivity is not present. Nevertheless, these children still manifest problems with organization and distractibility, and they may be seen as quiet or passive in nature. It is speculated that undifferentiated ADD is currently underdiagnosed, since these children tend to be overlooked more easily in the classroom. Thus, children with undifferentiated ADD may be at a higher risk for academic failure than those with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder.

Establishing the Proper Learning Environment

- Seat students with ADD near the teacher's desk, but include them as part of the regular class seating.
- Place these students up front with their backs to the rest of the class to keep other students out of view.
- Surround students with ADD with good role models, preferably students whom they view as significant others. Encourage peer tutoring and cooperative/collaborative learning.
- Avoid distracting stimuli. Try not to place students with ADD near air conditioners, high traffic areas, heaters, or doors or windows.
- Children with ADD do not handle change well, so avoid transitions, physical relocation (monitor them closely on field trips), changes in schedule, and disruptions.
- Be creative! Produce a stimuli-reduced study area. Let all students have access to this area so the student with ADD will not feel different.
- Encourage parents to set up appropriate study space at home, with set times and routines established for study, parental review of completed homework, and periodic notebook and/or book bag organization.

Giving Instructions to Students with ADD

- Maintain eye contact during verbal instruction.
- Make directions clear and concise. Be consistent with daily instructions.
- Simplify complex directions. Avoid multiple commands.
- Make sure students comprehend the instructions before beginning the task.
- Repeat instructions in a calm, positive manner, if needed.
- Help the students feel comfortable with seeking assistance (most children with ADD will not ask for help).
- Gradually reduce the amount of assistance, but keep in mind that these children will need more help for a longer period of time than the average child.
- Require a daily assignment notebook if necessary.
  - Make sure each student correctly writes down all assignments each day. If a student is not capable of this, the teacher should help him or her.
  - Sign the notebook daily to signify completion of homework assignments. (Parents should also sign.)
  - Use the notebook for daily communication with parents.

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ERIC Clearinghouse on Handicapped and Gifted Children. (1989). *Teaching children with attention deficit disorder*. Reston, VA: Author.

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Giving Assignments

- Give out only one task at a time.
- Monitor frequently. Maintain a supportive attitude.
- Modify assignments as needed. Consult with special education personnel to determine specific strengths and weaknesses of each student. Develop an individualized education program.
- Make sure you are testing knowledge and not attention span.
- Give extra time for certain tasks. Students with ADD may work slowly. Do not penalize them for needed extra time.
- Keep in mind that children with ADD are easily frustrated. Stress, pressure, and fatigue can break down their self-control and lead to poor behavior.

Modifying Behavior and Enhancing Self-Esteem

Providing Supervision and Discipline

- Remain calm, state the infraction of the rule, and avoid debating or arguing with the student.
- Have preestablished consequences for misbehavior.
- Administer consequences immediately, and monitor proper behavior frequently.
- Enforce classroom rules consistently.
- Make sure the discipline fits the "crime," without harshness.
- Avoid ridicule and criticism. Remember, children with ADD have difficulty staying in control.
- Avoid *publicly* reminding students on medication to "take their medicine."

Providing Encouragement

- Reward more than you punish, in order to build self-esteem.
- Praise immediately any and all good behavior and performance.
- Change rewards if they are not effective in motivating behavioral change.
- Find ways to encourage the child.
- Teach the child to reward himself or herself. Encourage positive self-talk (e.g., "You did very well remaining in your seat today. How do you feel about that?"). This encourages the child to think positively about himself or herself.

Other Educational Recommendations

- Educational, psychological, and/or neurological testing to determine learning style and cognitive ability and to rule out any learning disabilities (common in about 30% of students with ADD).
- A private tutor and/or peer tutoring at school.
- A class that has a low student-teacher ratio.
- Social skills training and organizational skills training.
- Training in cognitive restructuring (positive "self-talk," e.g., "I did that well.").
- Use of a word processor or computer for schoolwork.
- Individualized activities that are mildly competitive or non-competitive such as bowling, walking, swimming, jogging, biking, karate. (Note: Children with ADD may do less well than their peers in team sports.)
- Involvement in social activities such as scouting, church groups, or other youth organizations that help develop social skills and self-esteem.
- Allowing children with ADD to play with younger children if that is where they fit in. Many children with ADD have more in common with younger children than with their age-peers. They can still develop valuable social skills from interaction with younger children.

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For more information on ADD, write to:

CHADD
Children with Attention Deficit Disorder
1859 North Pine Island Road
Suite 185
Plantation, FL 33322
(305) 792-8100 or 384-6869

Contact your local school psychologist, examiner, or personnel in charge of assessment and diagnosis in your school district for specific information and local programs.

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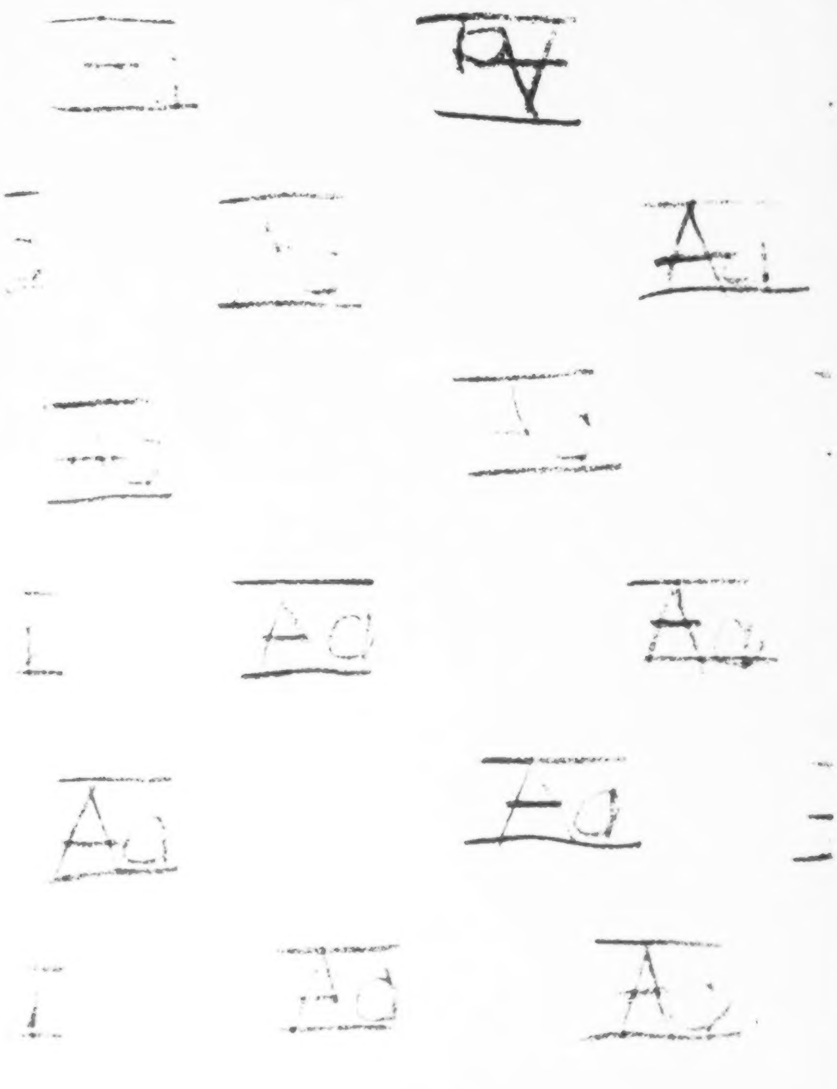
ADHD

Attention Deficit-Hyperactivity Disorder and Learning Disabilities

Booklet for the Classroom Teacher
Larry B. Silver, M.D.



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INTRODUCTION

Because of federal and state legislation—and initiatives by local school systems—you are increasingly likely to have in your classroom a child or adolescent with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and/or Learning Disabilities (LD). Yet it is possible that your college or graduate school education did not cover this type of child, or you may need to be updated on the subject.

As the classroom teacher, you can play a key role in helping children with ADHD and/or LD and their families. It is hoped that this booklet will aid you in understanding the many aspects of such a child and how you can help him or her in the classroom and with other school related activities. This booklet is only a guide. The child's doctor and the professional staff of your school system will help you with specific planning.

OVERVIEW OF THE PROBLEMS

Between 10 and 20 percent of all school-age children have learning disabilities. Of those with LD, about 20 to 25 percent also have ADHD. LD and ADHD are two separate problems; however, they occur together so frequently that it is useful to consider them related. In addition, most children and adolescents with LD and/or ADHD develop emotional, social, and family difficulties. These are the result of frustrations and failures experienced with family and peers and at school. They are not the *cause* of the academic problems but rather the *consequence*.

WHY DOES EVERYONE HAVE A DIFFERENT NAME FOR THIS CHILD?

As these children were recognized and studied, different names were applied to describe their condition. Many of these terms are still used by different professionals, sometimes confusing you and the parents.

Prior to the 1940s, children who had difficulty learning or paying attention were considered either mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, or culturally disadvantaged. The research of the 1940s identified a fourth group of children, those who had difficulty because of the way their nervous systems worked. Their problems were described as "neurologically based." Initially this disorder was called *Minimal Brain Damage*; later the name was changed to *Minimal Brain Dysfunction*

These terms referred to children with neurologically based academic problems, hyperactivity, a short attention span, impulsivity, and emotional problems.

Since the 1940s, this group of problems has been a separate focus of study. First the neurologically based academic problems were identified and named to reflect the primary area of skill difficulty: *dyslexia* for reading problems, *dysgraphia* for writing problems, and *dyscalculia* for math problems. Later, the term *Learning Disability* was applied to the types of learning difficulties that underlie the skill problems.

Hyperactivity, distractibility, and impulsivity were initially called *Hyperkinetic Disorder of Childhood* (thus, the "Hyperactive Child"). By 1980, the name had been changed to *Attention Deficit Disorder* (ADD) to emphasize that the attentional problem was the major issue, not hyperactivity. In 1987, the name was changed again to reflect the reality that all of the problems were significant. The newest term is *Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder* (ADHD).

The latest terms, therefore, are ADHD and LD. If the professionals you work with use others, do not be confused. They are not seeing a different problem, they are merely using older terms to describe it.

If a student in your classroom has ADHD and/or LD, he or she will probably have emotional problems (anger, sadness, anxiety, or disruptive behavior), social problems (immaturity, poor relationships with children his or her own age), and/or family problems.

To understand this child or adolescent you must look at his or her difficulties from all angles to see how they affect every aspect of life—not just in school but with other children and with the family. It is clear that learning disabilities do not just interfere with reading, writing, and math. They affect, for example, recess and physical education—baseball, basketball, and hopscotch. They also may interfere with art, music, or related activities. Likewise, ADHD does not interfere with only classroom behavior; it affects peer-related behavior and family life as well. You must become knowledgeable about these students so that you can help them inside and outside the classroom. You must learn how to set up successful experiences for these students and how to maximize strengths rather than magnify weaknesses.

WHAT ARE LEARNING DISABILITIES?

To review the meaning of learning disabilities, it is useful to break down learning into its four steps. The first step is the process of recording information in the brain (input). Next, this information must be organized and understood (integration).

Once recorded and understood, information must be stored, to be retrieved later (memory). Finally, information must be communicated from the brain to people or translated into action in the environment (output). Learning disabilities can occur in any of these four areas.

Input Disabilities

Information enters the brain through all five senses. In learning, the important ones are seeing (visual) and hearing (auditory). Input does not refer to the physical condition of the eye or ear, but rather to how the brain processes what is heard or seen. The term used for this central process of perceiving the world is perception. Thus, a child might have a visual or an auditory perception disability.

Visual Perception Disabilities: Your student might confuse visual inputs, reversing letters—like "ɘ" for "e"—or have difficulty distinguishing "d" and "b" and "p" and "q." "Was" might be read as "saw" or "dog" as "god." This confusion might show up in written work, copying designs or in doing tasks that require the eyes to guide the hands (visual-motor task). A student with visual-motor problems might find it difficult to catch or hit a ball, do puzzles, use a hammer and nail, jump rope, etc.

There are other types of visual perception problems. Some students might have trouble organizing their position in space or might confuse left and right. Others might have a "figure-ground" problem, the inability to focus on a particular thing rather than on the entire background. For example, when reading, they might skip words or lines. Judging distance is another visual perception task. A student might misjudge depth and bump into things or fall off a chair. He or she might seem careless or might knock a drink over because the distance is misjudged and the hand gets there too soon.

Auditory Perception Disabilities: Some children have difficulty distinguishing subtle differences in sounds. Your student might misunderstand what you say and respond incorrectly, confusing words like "blue" and "blow" or "ball" and "bell." Someone might ask, "How are you?" and the child might answer, "I'm eight years old." The "are" is heard as "old."

Difficulty with auditory "figure-ground" is another problem. A child might hear activity in the hall or other children talking in the room. You begin to speak to the class, but you might be well into what you are saying before the child realizes that it is your voice (the figure) to be listened to rather than the other sounds (the background). Such children appear to never pay attention. But if you call the child's name first and make eye contact, you may see improvement.

Some children cannot process sound inputs at a normal speed. Their slower processing of sound is called an auditory lag; they seem to miss part of what you are saying. You find that you intuitively speak slower if you want this child to understand.

Integration Disabilities

Once recorded, information must be placed in the correct order (sequencing), understood in the context in which it is used (abstraction), and integrated with all other information being processed (organization). Some children might have difficulty in one or more of these areas, but these problems may be primarily with either visual or auditory input. Thus, a student with auditory sequencing disability may do well with visual sequencing.

Sequencing Disabilities: Your student might read or hear a story and understand it. But in retelling or writing the story, he or she may confuse the sequence of thoughts or events, starting in the middle, going to the beginning, and then to the end. The child might see "23" but write it as "32." Spelling errors are common—all of the letters are there but in the wrong sequence. The child might be able to memorize a sequence such as the months of the year. But, if you ask what comes after September, he or she may not be able to use the sequence. Such children might find it necessary to start with January and work their way up to September in order to answer. Such a child might hit a ball but run to third base rather than first base.

Abstraction Disabilities: Most people understand the meaning of some words or phrases based on how the words are used. There is a difference in the meaning of the word "dog" if one says "the dog" or "you dog." Some children have difficulty understanding these differences. They appear to follow the literal meaning of the word. They misunderstand jokes, puns, and sayings. And, at times, they believe people are talking about them because they take what people say or do too literally.

Organization Disabilities: Some children can process each piece of information but have difficulty integrating the pieces into a whole picture. Perhaps they can answer the questions at the end of the chapter, but they're unable to explain what the chapter was about. They might do well on multiple-choice questions (where one has to recognize only pieces of information) but poorly on essay-type exams. These children might have difficulty organizing their lives. Their lockers or desks are a mess; their notebooks are crammed with papers in the wrong place; their lives are disorganized.

Memory Disabilities

Once information is recorded and integrated, it must be stored so that it can be retrieved later. In general, there are two types of memory: short-term and long-term. Short-term memory is what you remember as long as you are paying attention to it (for example, remembering a phone number from the information operator; you might forget it if someone talks to you before you dial the number). After many repetitions, you will retain the information; this is called long-term memory. It refers to repeated and stored information that you can retrieve by thinking about it. A student's short-term memory disability may affect visual inputs of information but not auditory, or vice versa.

Such a child might go over a spelling list and have it down pat (he or she is attending to it); yet, the next morning it is forgotten. You might explain a math concept in school and the child knows it (is attending to it) yet goes home that night and forgets how to do the problem. In contrast, this same child might remind you of something that he or she did two or three years ago in detail. There is no problem with long-term memory. However, he or she may need to go over something ten or more times to learn it, whereas a child without this problem might be able to learn it in three to five repetitions.

Output Disabilities

Information is communicated through words (language output) or through muscle activities such as writing, drawing, gesturing (motor output). Your student might have one or both of these output disabilities.

Language Disabilities: There are two types of oral language that we use, spontaneous (when we initiate a conversation) and demand (when someone asks us a question). With spontaneous language, we organize our thoughts and find the words we want before we speak. With demand language, we must do all of this as we speak.

Your student might have a demand language disability. What is confusing is that when the child speaks (spontaneous language), he or she sounds normal. Yet, when asked a question (demand language)—"What did you do today?" "Will you answer question five?"—the child will respond with "Huh?" or "What?" or ask you to repeat the question. If the child replies, he or she might ramble or have trouble finding the right words.

Motor Disabilities: Your student might have difficulty using his or her large muscles (gross motor disability) or small muscles (fine motor disability). A child with gross motor problems may be clumsy, stumble, have trouble walking, running, climbing, or riding a bike. He or she might have difficulty with dressing, buttoning, tying, or zipping.

The child with fine motor disabilities will have difficulty coordinating a team of small muscles, such as those in his or her dominant hand when writing. Such children will have slow, poor handwriting. They will hold the pencil or pen differently and their hands will tire from the work needed to write. The child might say, "My hand does not work as fast as my head is thinking."

In Summary

It is important for you to understand these students' areas of learning disabilities as well as their abilities. You must appreciate how these disabilities interfere with academic and other school activities as well as with sports and relationships with other children. You must learn how to help your students build on their strengths rather than let them become frustrated by focusing on areas of weakness. If you are uncertain about a student's strengths and weaknesses, ask the special education professionals in your school system.

WHAT IS ATTENTION DEFICIT-HYPERACTIVITY DISORDER?

Three types of behavior characterize individuals with ADHD. Your student might demonstrate one, two, or all three of these. He or she might be hyperactive, distractible, and/or impulsive. Only one is necessary to be diagnosed as ADHD. For example, a child can be distractible and/or impulsive, but not hyperactive.

Hyperactivity

This child may not be running around the room or "climbing the walls." But he or she will appear to be in constant motion: fingers or feet tapping, legs swinging, or body wiggling in the chair. The child may be up and down at the desk or doing several things at once when playing or working.

It is important to understand that there can be two different types of hyperactivity. One, caused by a particular situation, may go away when the situation changes or the child learns to cope with the stress. The other, ADHD, is caused by neurological differences in the child's brain. The history of the problem helps the doctor decide if the hyperactivity, distractibility, and/or impulsivity is due to an emotional problem or to ADHD. Anxiety or depression can cause hyperactivity in children, adolescents, and adults, but this form of hyperactivity is not ADHD.

If the behaviors began at a particular time in the child's life (for example, in third grade), think of anxiety. If the behaviors began after a life crisis (for example, parents' separation or divorce, birth of a sibling), think of depression.

If the behaviors are chronic (present throughout the child's life) and pervasive (present throughout each day), the diagnosis is probably the neurologically based form of hyperactivity, or ADHD.

Distractibility

We allow all input to enter our brain from all of our senses. We then monitor this input at a lower level of our brain, relaying only important information to the thinking part of the brain. Because of this ability, we can be in a noisy place yet hear perfectly our own name if it is called. We can drive home and suddenly realize that we were daydreaming and do not know how we got home (our brain screened important information and sent it to the necessary areas for reaction). Without this ability our mind would be cluttered with information.

Some people have difficulty filtering out unnecessary inputs. They are easily distracted and have a short attention span. Others have problems with visual inputs—they may be distracted by the movements of people, cloud formations, or birds. Difficulty with sound inputs—people talking, car horns beeping, telephones ringing—is another problem.

As with hyperactivity, anxiety or depression can cause a person to be distractible. Again, if the problem has been chronic and is pervasive, it is most likely neurologically based, or ADHD.

Impulsivity

Some children seem to have a short fuse. They do not stop to think before they act. They say something and are sorry they said it before they finish. They answer the teacher's questions before he or she finishes asking. They get angry and yell, throw, or hit. They do not learn from experience because they cannot pause long enough to reflect before they act. These children get into behavioral difficulties at home, with friends, and at school.

As with hyperactivity or distractibility, anxiety or depression may cause a child to be impulsive. If the impulsivity has been chronic and pervasive, clinical evidence supports that it is neurologically based, or ADHD.

In Summary

If your student has ADHD, he or she might be hyperactive, distractible, and/or impulsive. Thus, it is possible that you might have a calm, underactive child who has been diagnosed as ADHD because he or she is distractible and/or impulsive. It is important that this diagnosis be made by a trained professional and be established only if the behaviors are neurologically based—a conclusion usually based on the history of the problem and whether it has been chronic and pervasive.

ADHD is not a learning disability. It is a related disorder often found in children who have learning disabilities. Treatment for ADHD will not correct any learning disabilities; they must be treated separately.

WHAT ARE THE EMOTIONAL, SOCIAL AND FAMILY PROBLEMS?

Often the ADHD and/or LD are missed by the school. Gradually, the child becomes frustrated and begins to fail, possibly getting into behavioral difficulties. Then, the school staff might call in the parents and explain that their child is not learning because of an emotional problem caused by family problems.

It is essential that we distinguish between emotional, social, and family problems that *cause* academic difficulties—and emotional, social, and family problems resulting from a school difficulty that has been unrecognized or recognized and not fully treated. The cases are different; each child responds to an entirely different approach.

Emotional Problems

These problems are associated with academic difficulties. Often, friendship and family problems exist as well. These children feel frustrated. They experience failure and feel inadequate, bad, or dumb. Teachers and parents might call them lazy or bad for not doing better in school. Some may act out these feelings, becoming aggressive, getting into fights, or striking out impulsively. Others may internalize their feelings, becoming depressed, withdrawn, or showing a poor self-image. Still others may channel their feelings into their bodies, developing headaches or stomachaches.

If a child wakes up on a school morning with a stomachache and the parents let him or her stay home, only to find that by midmorning he or she is no longer sick, it is possible that the child was not playing games. He or she might have been anxious about going to school. The anxiety went away, as did the stomachache, with the realization that he or she did not have to face school.

For some children, these bodily concerns may be more vague, with complaints of backaches or pains in their hands or legs. Other children handle their feelings by learning to manipulate their world to avoid stressful situations—by becoming, for example, the "class clown." They know just what to do at the wrong time to the right person to disrupt a lesson plan or to be kicked out of class. If successful, they will avoid having to read or do math or whatever else they sense they cannot do well.

Social Problems

As mentioned earlier, the child's LD and/or ADHD does not just interfere with reading, writing, and math. The conditions affect sports, activities with other children, and family relationships—all aspects of life. It is not surprising that these children may not get along with children their own age. If they cannot do successfully what others do, they may choose to play with younger children or withdraw into the house.

Some find that they are less likely to be embarrassed or experience failure if they control their world. They do only what they want to do, only the way they want to do it. They appear bossy or in need of being in control.

For reasons we do not yet understand, some children, adolescents, and adults with LD and/or ADHD have difficulty recognizing social cues and using social skills. They miss the look on another person's face or the body language that suggests they are being annoying, and they blunder on. They may act inappropriately or seem immature and alienate others.

Family Problems

When one member of a family is hurting, everyone feels the pain. When a child experiences frustrations and failures, parents may also be frustrated trying to understand or help this child. As parents, they may feel like failures. Initially, they might have difficulty accepting that their child has a disability. They might deny the problem. But even when they have accepted it, they might still be angry that this happened or feel guilty about having caused it. It takes time to accept and learn to live with each of these feelings.

Brothers and sisters also may be affected. They may not have been informed about their sibling's problems or the reason for everyone's concern. Without facts, they might fantasize about the situation and worry. Is it my fault? Will I get it? Will he die? Some will be angry with the double standard. How come I have to make my bed and he doesn't? How come when he does it he gets away with it, and when I do it I get punished? Others may feel guilty. They are told to be more understanding and accepting, yet they feel angry at the sibling's behavior or at all the attention he or she gets.

In Summary

Unless the underlying LD and/or ADHD are recognized and treated, the emotional, social, and family problems may become worse. If these problems are treated by individual, behavioral, group, or family therapy without also addressing the reasons for the problems (the child's disability), no progress will be made. You cannot put out a fire by blowing away the smoke. Nor can you help a child gain a better self image when he or she is experiencing failure daily in school.

HOW DO YOU KNOW FOR SURE IF IT'S ADHD OR LD?

Because of the many types of possible learning and/or emotional problems a child or adolescent might have, it is best if the effort to pinpoint the cause is done by a team of professionals. This effort may take place in a doctor's office or clinic, or in an educational, mental health, or other location. The child's doctor may participate directly, request the evaluations, or receive the results from the team, and help the parents to understand what was discovered.

To review, learning disabilities are diagnosed through studies by psychologists and special educational experts. The first studies assess the child's intellectual ability and potential. The next assess the current level of achievement in each academic area. If there is a discrepancy between the child's ability and performance, a third set of studies is done to clarify whether learning disabilities exist. If such disabilities are found, a speech pathologist might do further studies in the language areas. Or an occupational therapist might examine the sensory-motor and motor areas. Each school system has its own definition of LD; thus, a child might be diagnosed as LD by a professional or private team and not be recognized as such by the school.

ADHD is identified primarily through evaluating the child's history and from observations made by parents, teachers, and others. Again, the hyperactivity, distractibility, and/or impulsivity should be both chronic and pervasive for an ADHD diagnosis.

As part of an evaluation for ADHD or LD, the doctor should do a complete physical examination. Other professionals might examine your child if your doctor feels it is needed.

In some cases, a neurological examination may be necessary. An EEG (brain wave test) is not usually done unless there is a suggestion of a seizure disorder.

A child psychiatrist or other mental health professional might evaluate the child to assess his or her level of psychological and social functioning and to uncover any emotional conflicts or stresses.

Ideally, the full team should meet to discuss its findings and to establish a diagnosis and a treatment plan. One or more members of the team should meet with the classroom teacher to explain the findings, diagnosis, and treatment approaches. It is more likely, however, that one person from the team will meet with you about your role in working with this student.

WHAT CAN THE CLASSROOM TEACHER DO?

As you know, we are discussing a group of problems often found together. Children and adolescents can have LD and/or ADHD. Each is a different disorder. Most who have LD and/or ADHD develop emotional, social, and family problems secondary to (as a result of) these main problems. It is important that you assess which of these disorders your student has and which ones he or she does not have.

Your Role in Learning Disabilities

Work with the student's special education team. You know the different types of learning disabilities and the terms used. Find out the areas where your child is learning disabled; also discover his or her learning abilities. You need to know these strengths so that you can help the child build on them.

Work closely with the parents and your school professionals to develop the necessary interventions. Is the child receiving the best level of care? Some children respond best to being taught in a regular classroom and "pulled out" during the day for special educational help. Others do better in a special resource room from which they are "mainstreamed" into a regular classroom for part of the day. Still others need to be in a full-time, self-contained, special education program. The goal in each of these settings is to teach through your child's strengths while helping him or her to overcome or to make up for the disabilities. Since most learning-disabled children will become learning-disabled adolescents, it will be necessary to plan programs for each upcoming school year.

Be sure that you understand the special educational studies done on the children in your class. Whenever possible, help them compensate for their disabilities by working on their weaknesses while building on their strengths. For example, if you have a child with fine motor disabilities but good language strengths, you could call on this child to answer questions or discuss things in class but perhaps not ask him or her to write on the blackboard. Similarly, if you are going to put math problems or words on the board that have to be copied, you might photocopy them for this child. With written work, you might focus less on handwriting and more on content. Conversely, if you have a child with good motor skills but a demand language disability, you might ask him or her to write on the blackboard, or you might let this child volunteer to speak but not ask him or her a question in class. Always build on strengths rather than frustrate the child by focusing on weaknesses.

The same approach should be used for recess, crafts, and gym activities. Children with fine motor disabilities may have difficulty with sports that require skills in this area (baseball, basketball, etc.), but they may do well with sports that use gross motor abilities (soccer, hockey, swimming, etc.). If you are doing an art or crafts activity with drawing and cutting, don't ask such children to do the fine cutting. They could, however, hand out the materials or squirt the glue. By knowing a child's strengths and weaknesses and by building on the strengths, a potential social or peer disaster could instead be a success.

Parents need to do the same thing at home when selecting chores or seeking after-school activities. You can help by explaining their child's strengths and weaknesses and by helping them learn how to choose the activities that build on these strengths rather than magnify the weaknesses.

Your Role in ADHD

If the child's doctor feels that the hyperactivity, distractibility, and/or impulsivity stem from a specific nervous-system-based disability, not anxiety or depression, he or she might prescribe medication.

If a child in your classroom is placed on medication, your observations are important. The child's doctor may want to discuss your observations to decide on the dosage or frequency of medication. Remember that some children are hyperactive; you will look for a decrease in these children's muscle activity. In distractible children, you will look for a decrease in distractibility and an increase in attention span. Still others are impulsive; in them, you will look for an increase in reflectivity. Such medication will not necessarily help the learning disabilities, but it can make the child more available for learning.

These medicines do not cure the ADHD. Instead, they appear to work by correcting for a lack of certain necessary brain chemicals in the nervous system. Parents should be aware that these medicines do not "drug" or "alter" the brain of the child. They make the child "normal" by correcting for a neurochemical imbalance.

Either the child's own doctor or the school physician will discuss the prescribed medication with you, how it works, and its possible side effects. Be sure to ask questions so that you understand the medication.

Since ADHD is a neurologically based disorder, it is important that children on medication take it as prescribed. The same hyperactivity, distractibility, and/or impulsivity that causes problems in school will cause problems at home, with other children after school, on weekends, or anytime. Medicine should be used when needed during school holidays and summer vacation, if the hyperactivity, distractibility, and/or impulsivity will prevent the individual from being successful or from behaving properly. Some doctors place children on "drug holidays," when they do not take medication, in order to avoid the development of long-term side effects. While research has shown that these time periods off medication are not necessary for most children, many doctors still continue to recommend "drug holidays."

Your Role with the Emotional, Social, and Family Problems

The emotional problems are due to the stresses this child or adolescent experiences. The first goal is to minimize these stresses. Often, the emotional problems minimize or disappear once the school recognizes the LD and sets up a program to help, once the parents rethink their relationship based on their new knowledge—and, if needed, once medication is begun. In some cases, however, the emotional problems have become so ingrained, they continue to exist. Special mental health assistance may be needed in these situations.

ADHD children usually respond best to structure and clearly defined expectations and limits. Sometimes, developing a system that lists acceptable and unacceptable behaviors along with rewards and consequences will work. You may want to seek help from your special services team if the behavioral problems are too disruptive or if they make the child unavailable for learning.

If the emotional problems persist after the proper programs for the disabilities have been developed, the child might need therapy. If the child has internalized the problems, he or she might need individual, psychoanalytically oriented psychotherapy. He or she would see a therapist once or twice a week, and the parents also would receive counseling. And it is helpful for the therapist to communicate with you.

If the problems are related more to the child's style of interacting with others, group therapy or a social skill learning group might be needed. If he or she has developed certain patterns of behavior, behavioral therapy might be recommended. If the difficulties are mainly concerned with family issues and interactions, family therapy might be appropriate.

The social problems can best be addressed by helping the child experience successes using the approaches discussed earlier. Sometimes social skills can be taught by a professional in a group setting.

WHAT ABOUT THE FUTURE?

LD and ADHD are disabilities that impact all aspects of life. For most children with LD, the disabilities will last a lifetime, whereas up to 50 percent of ADHD children will be so afflicted.

With the right help, most LD children overcome or learn to compensate for the problems. They will progress in school and strive toward reaching their potential. There will be many programs available for them throughout school and after. But without the necessary help, they will fall behind and become increasingly unavailable for learning. They will continue to struggle and the families may be less than successful in helping their child.

With the appropriate help, ADHD children can function without hyperactivity, distractibility, or impulsivity. They can develop confidence and a feeling of control and success.

Your role is extremely important. For these special students to be successful in the classroom, you must be informed. You must be this student's advocate, actively seeking the recognition and help he or she needs. You must use your knowledge to maximize their academic and emotional growth. With your help, and by working with other professionals and the family, these children will overcome their disabilities and succeed in life as healthy, happy, productive people.

REMEMBER

1. LD and ADHD are related disorders but are not the same. Each must be diagnosed and separately treated.

2. Work with your special education team.

3. You must know all aspects of your student's disabilities and abilities. Only with this knowledge can you help.

4. Always build on strengths rather than magnify weaknesses.

5. Be assertive. Get the information and help you need from the professionals in your school system. Ask questions. Work with the parents to get the needed help. Work closely with the student's physician.

THESE GROUPS CAN PROVIDE MORE INFORMATION AND HELP

Learning Disabilities Association of America
4156 Library Road
Pittsburgh, PA 15234
(412) 341-8077

Orton Dyslexia Society
Chester Building, Suite 382
8600 La Salle Road
Baltimore, Maryland 21286-2044
(410) 296-0232

Children and Adults with Attention Deficit Disorders (CH.A.D.D.)
499 Northwest 70th Street, Suite 308
Plantation, Florida 33317
(305) 587-3700

National Center for Learning Disabilities
381 Park Avenue South, Suite 1420
New York, NY 10016
(212) 545-7510

SUGGESTED READING

1. *Home is a Learning Place. A Parent's Guide to Learning Disabilities*, by H. G. Weiss and M. S. Weiss, Boston, Little Brown and Co., 1976.

2. *No Easy Answers. The Learning Disabled Child at Home and at School*, by S. L. Smith, New York, Bantam Books, 1978.

3. *No One to Play With. The Social Side of Learning Disabilities*, by B. B. Osman, New York, Random House, 1982.

4. *Learning Disabilities. A Family Affair*, by B. B. Osman, New York, Random House, 1979.

5. *The Misunderstood Child. A Guide for Parents of Learning Disabled Children*, by L. B. Silver, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1984. Dr. Silver's book provided the foundation for this booklet. A fuller discussion of this material can be found in *The Misunderstood Child*.

6. *Your Hyperactive Child. A Parent's Guide to Coping with Attention Deficit Disorder*, by B. Ingersoll, New York, Doubleday, 1988.

7. *The Hyperactive Child, Adolescent, and Adult. Attention Deficit Disorder Through the Lifespan*, by P. H. Wender, New York, Oxford University Press, 1987.

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Accommodating Marginal Learners: Actions, Needs, and Plans

Areas for Adaptations and Interventions:

Supplying the Missing Skills

Structuring for Success

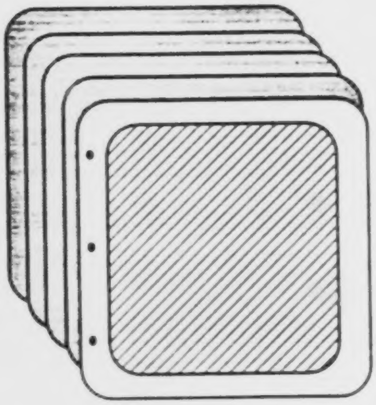
Connecting Personally

Getting Help

Think–Pair–Share: With a partner, answer the questions by listing responses under actions, needs, and/or plans below. Share your responses with the total group.

1. In which areas is your school or district most active in helping marginal learners? (actions)
2. In which areas of your school or district are improvements most needed? (needs)
3. What plans should be made for appropriate interventions for marginal learners in your school or district? (plans)

ACTIONS	NEEDS	PLANS



Transparencies

Module 3 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Analyze specific techniques for motivating marginal learners and for adapting classroom practices to accommodate them.
2. Develop methods for getting help from various sources to reach marginal students.
3. Identify needs and plan interventions appropriate for marginal learners in participants' schools/districts.

What Makes Them Marginal?

Recognizable handicaps

Mental retardation

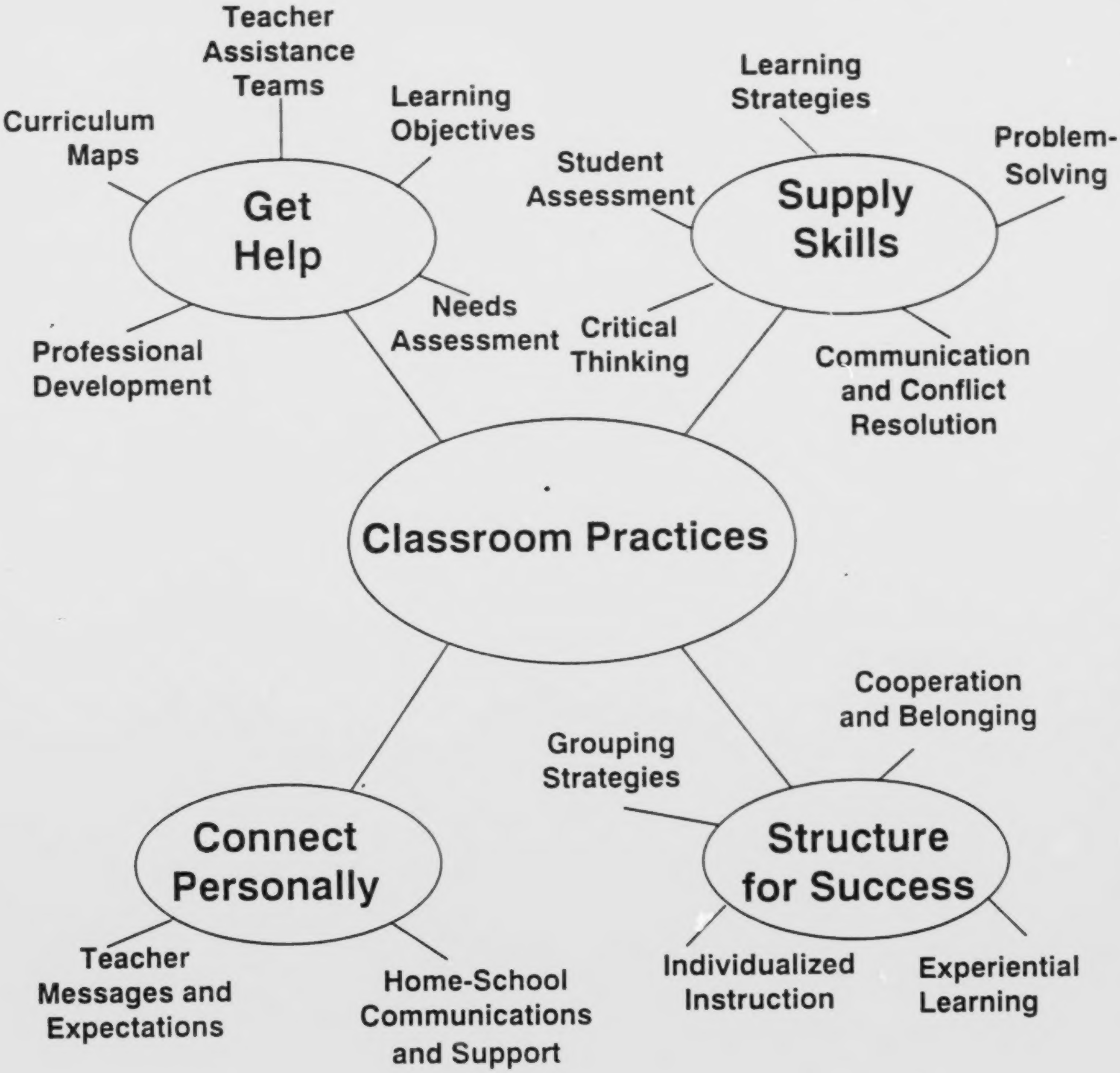
Physiological disorders

Slow academic gain

Emotional problems

Poor or distressed cultural and social backgrounds

Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners



Classroom Practices

Get Help
- Teacher Assistance Teams
- Learning Objectives
- Needs Assessment
- Professional Development
- Curriculum Maps

Supply Skills
- Learning Strategies
- Problem-Solving
- Communication and Conflict Resolution
- Critical Thinking
- Student Assessment

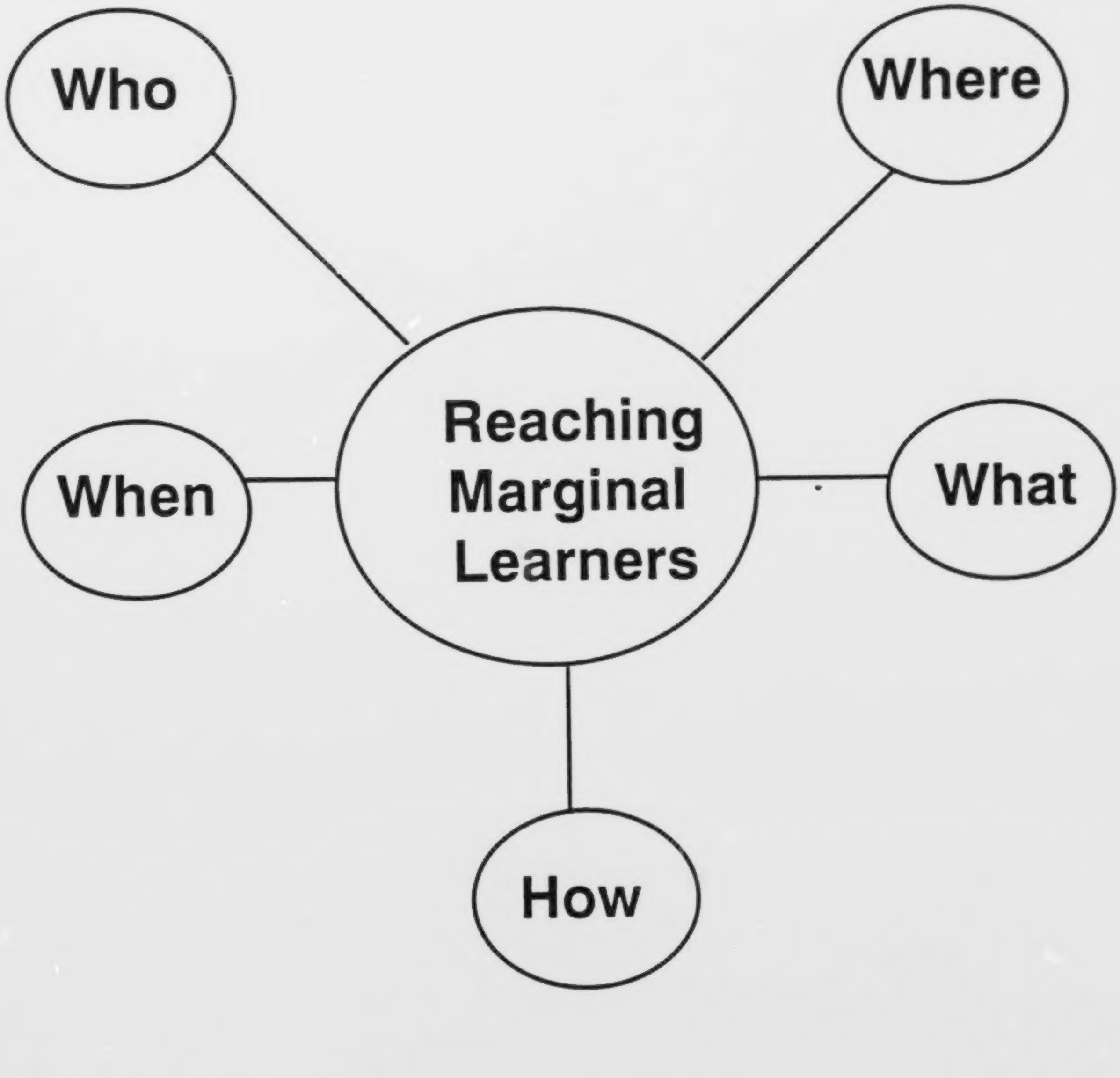
Connect Personally
- Teacher Messages and Expectations
- Home-School Communications and Support

Structure for Success
- Cooperation and Belonging
- Experiential Learning
- Individualized Instruction
- Grouping Strategies

Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement

1. Opportunities to Respond in Class
2. Individual Acknowledgment
3. Wait–Time
4. Physical Closeness/Proximity
5. Touching
6. Praise/Reproof
7. Listening
8. Probing
9. Higher Level Questioning
10. Analytical Feedback/Reasons for Praise

WEB



Reaching Marginal Learners

Who

Where

When

What

How

HELP WEB

Getting Help

Staff Development

Administrators

Outside Sources

Other Teachers

Assistance Teams

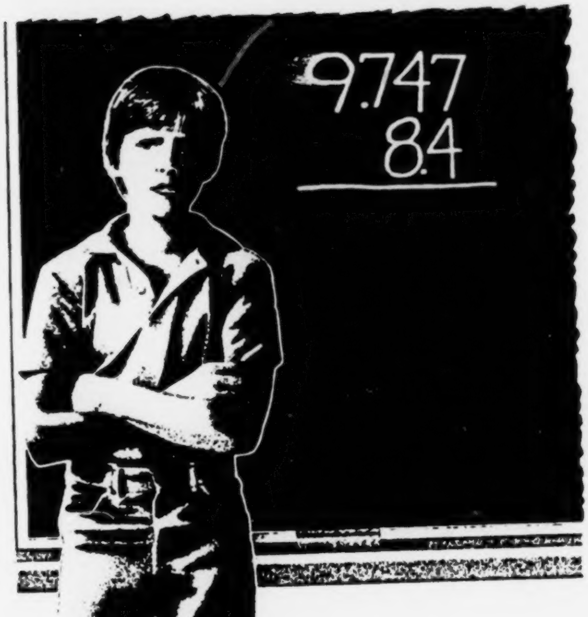
Accommodating Marginal Learners: School Actions, Needs, and Plans

Actions	Needs	Plans

MODULE 4

Assessing District Policies and Programs for Marginal Learners

A school district or school may have elements of structure and operation that inhibit learning for some students. These elements may appear in district policies and procedures related to discipline, attendance, grade retention, suspension, graduation, placement in special education programs, or other areas. Parts of the school curriculum may lack meaning, involvement, and "connectedness" for some students. Specific instructional practices may unintentionally contribute to lack of involvement, a sense of detachment, and subsequent low academic achievement or misconduct. In this module, participants will assess aspects of their school or district policies, curriculum, and instructional practices in light of marginal learner needs. Participants will identify local conditions that may hinder achievement for marginal learners, and will propose key steps for taking action toward improvement.



Module 4. Assessing District Policies and Programs for Marginal Learners Training Agenda for Focused Workshop (3 hours, 40 minutes)

Time Required		
20 minutes	Activity 1	Introduction and Overview—group activity
60 minutes	Activity 2	Administering District and School Policy & Program Survey—individual and group activity
20 minutes	Activity 3	Debriefing District Policy & Program Survey—group activity
10 minutes	Break	
30 minutes	Activity 4	Developing a District or School Effectiveness Profile—small group activity
30 minutes	Activity 5	Considerations for Planning and Action—lecturette and individual activity
40 minutes	Activity 6	Question and Answers—group activity
5 minutes	Activity 7	Resource Review
5 minutes	Activity 8	Wrap-up and Evaluation
220 minutes		

Activity 1. Introductions and Overview

Trainer's Notes

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Assessing District Polices and Programs for Marginal Learners*
Transparency:	*Module 4 Objectives*
Other:	Flip chart and marker

If Module 4 is being conducted as a separate workshop, participant introductions may be needed. One way to accomplish this and to focus on the topic is to distribute and ask participants to read the introductory handout, *Assessing District Policies and Programs for Marginal Learners.* Then ask them to introduce themselves by stating their names, positions, districts and/or schools, and to contribute to a list of "things we want to find out about district policies and programs for assisting marginal learners." Frame the question by stating "In addition to introductory information, please name one important aspect of the school structure or operation that might be examined as a district prepares to plan programs for marginal learners." Record responses on a flip chart. You may need to help participants clarify general responses. For example, if a participant said, "I'd want to find out what we are already doing," you may need to probe with a follow-up question such as "In what areas?"

Anticipated responses might include the following:

What present curriculum offerings exist?
Are they adequate?
How do students feel about the school or their teachers?
Is the administration willing to back up the plan with resources?
What kinds of resources are needed?
Are teachers prepared/equipped to deal with marginal learners?

The intent of Activity 1 is not to build another questionnaire or interview protocol, but to prepare participants to use the survey, *Determining District/School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners.*

Point out that the survey they are about to receive can be modified to help educators and education stakeholders find out information important to district or school planning. Items or sections can be added or deleted. In its present form, the instrument will assess current policies and practices in light of research findings on the needs of marginal learners and characteristics of programs that findings on the needs of marginal learners and characteristics of programs that have proven to be effective in dealing with marginal learners. As individuals, they will prepare tentative profiles for their district or school, based on their perceptions. Discuss the utility of the survey in district or school workshop sessions. As members or leaders of districtwide planning teams, they may want to pool perceptions of staff. They may want to compare perceptions of staff to those of parents, administrators, or students.

Finally, review the workshop objectives using transparency *Module 4 Objectives*. Adjust trainer remarks and directions to meet the needs of participants throughout the workshop.

Activity 2. Administering the Survey, Determining District and School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Determining District and School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners*
Transparency:	*Assessing District Policy and Programs–Overview*

Use the transparency *Assessing District Policy and Programs–Overview* to introduce the survey and the seven categories contained in it.

Distribute the survey and review the rating scale to be used in completing each item. Direct participants to focus on their perceptions of their district (or alternately on their school if comparison across schools is desired) when responding. Explain that participants have approximately 30 minutes to complete the survey. Briefly review the handout instructions. Caution participants that they may be more or less familiar with some areas of the survey than with others. Since the survey is rather lengthy, they should respond to the items quickly with their first thoughts and reactions, then move on to each new item. There is no need to dwell on responses as initial reactions are usually most accurate. You might suggest that they take a stretch/refreshment break and review displayed resources when finished, and state a time when they should reconvene as a group.

The categories and number of items on the survey are given below.

Category	No. of Items
School board policy	11
Curriculum and program options	10
Instructional practices	17
Parent and community relationships	6
Leadership	10
Professional development practices	8
School climate and student involvement	11
Total items:	73

After each participant has finished the survey, ask participants to reflect on their reactions to the survey, how district colleagues might perceive the survey, and what they learned about their district by responding to the questions. Explain that the next activity explores respondent reactions to the survey and the potential for use in planning for marginal learners.

Activity 3. Debriefing the Survey and Its Potential Use as a Planning Tool

Materials needed: Flip chart paper and markers

Before analyzing the data, invite participants to describe how it felt to take the survey, what they learned about their district and / or school in each category, and how they feel others in their district or school would respond to the survey. (For use with a multi-district group of workshop participants, compare and contrast responses to each category.)

Group participants by district, or by school if more appropriate. Ask groups to select a recorder and a reporter, then to reach consensus on the most significant findings (one strength and one weakness) for each of the seven categories, record them under "strengths" and "weaknesses," and report to the total group. Record responses on a flip chart.

Anticipated responses:

It was too long.
It was too short!
It really got me thinking about how little I know about my district.
I'd like to do this in our district and compare responses between buildings.
We really got to talking this over at the break. It's a great discussion starter.

Summarize participant findings and address any questions or concerns about the use of the survey.

Activity 4. Developing a District or School Effectiveness Profile

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Profiling District/School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners*
Transparency:	*Assessing District Policy and Programs—Overview*

Distribute the handout *Profiling District/School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners*. The profile provides a visual display of the Activity 2 survey, *Determining District and School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners*. Items are ranked in four categories: (1) highest evidence of effectiveness, (2) some evidence of effectiveness, (3) little evidence of effectiveness, and (4) least evidence of effectiveness. When the survey and this profile are used for district needs assessment, the workshop leader may lead small groups of school faculties or levels (elementary, middle, secondary) of administrator-teacher groups in a comparison of high and low evidence items. Alternately, individual school faculties may complete this process. Small groups may then reach consensus on the three items with highest priority for action. The transparency *Assessing District Policy and Programs—Overview* can aid discussion and lead into Activity 5.

Activity 5. Considerations for Planning and Action; Identifying Local Conditions that may Hinder Achievement for Marginal Learners

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Marginal Learner Interventions Action Plan*
Transparencies:	*Planning Cycle* *District Policy Checklist* *Marginal Learner Interventions Action Plan*
Other:	Flip chart paper and marker

Outline a planning cycle (drawn on a sheet of newsprint, flip chart, or presented on overhead transparency, "Planning Cycle") depicting the following components:

Involve—Who will be affected? Include all stakeholders in the process to ensure success and to minimize obstacles to implementation. Local site-based decisionmaking councils are often in place at the school level. All stakeholders must be represented: parents, students, administration, teachers, business and industry, and other community members.

Collect Data—What do we need to know to establish goals and objectives? School improvement data and school/district mission and goal statements can assist the focus on needs assessment and selection of areas for improvement. Data collection must include input from all stakeholders about the perceived effectiveness of the school's climate, curriculum, instruction, assessment, expectations, leadership, and other pertinent aspects.

Dialogue—What are our marginal learner needs? Where do we want to go? Ongoing discussions among stakeholders on the analysis of data, findings, and selection of targets for action is critical. Subgroups may divide responsibility for analysis and reporting to the larger group.

Plan—How will we get there? Consideration should be given to objectives, activities, timelines, resources, management, leadership, and evaluation of progress. Other situationally relevant considerations may be necessary.

Implement—What happens to improve learning for all students? Continued support and adequate time for implementation are essential. Results do not occur immediately. Change is a process, not an event. Monitoring, feedback, and adjustment are critical factors in the process.

Evaluate—How will we know if we accomplished the goals and objectives? How will we know when we get there? How will we determine which outcomes were not achieved and require continued emphasis or different approaches? How will teachers and learners know how much progress has been made and what is left to accomplish? What forms will assessment of progress take?

Conduct a workshop leader–led discussion of the **meaning, actions required, and timing** of each of these components and use the transparency *District Policy Checklist* to summarize the importance of reflection on and revision of policy to assist marginal learners. Lead participants in a discussion of the phases of **planning and implementing policy changes** (involve, collect data, dialogue, plan, implement, evaluate). Share the planning cycle steps on the overhead transparency or a flipchart. Draw out participant experiences in policy revision for assistance to marginal learners. Summarize with a discussion of the importance of reflecting and revising school policies and practices to better assist marginal learners. Use of the transparency *District Policy Checklist* may assist drawing conclusions for formulating local plans addressing the needs of marginal learners.

Distribute the handout and use transparency *Marginal Learner Interventions Action Plan*. Ask participants to work in school or district groups of no more than three to complete a plan of action for meeting the needs of marginal learners in their schools or districts. Allow approximately 20 minutes for planning. Direct groups to share highlights of their plans, such as their goal and one or two activities, with the total group. Plan for approximately 2 minutes per group. Alternately, for a very large group or when time is limited, ask participants to post their action plans and view those of others in a walkabout.

Remind participants that they have begun the most important step of action planning and that the process should continue with Module 6 and with others in their home schools and communities.

Activity 6. Questions and Answers

Materials needed:	index cards blank transparency and marker flip chart paper and markers

Provide closure to the workshop by allowing time for participants to formulate and ask questions prompted by the activities and group interaction. Ask participants to write one question on an index card. Take volunteer responses and come to consensus on a list of approximately 10 questions on a flip chart or blank transparency. Reviewing and clarifying each question, ask participants who have information about each to form 10 small groups. The remaining participants join the group of their choice for discussion. A reporter and recorder are selected for each group. Provide flip chart paper and markers or blank transparencies and markers. Allow about 10 minutes for discussion. Ask each group to present findings (2 minutes each) to the total group.

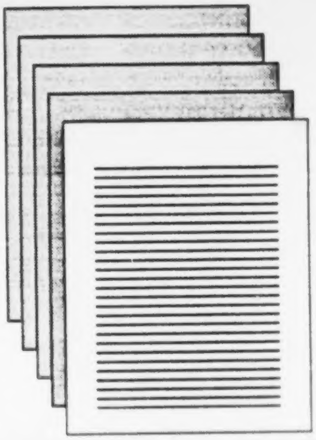
Activity 7. Resource Review

Refer to displayed key resources on helping marginal learners. These resources serve as materials available for further reading, reflecting, and professional development.

Activity 8. Wrap-Up and Session Evaluation

Materials needed: *Workshop Evaluation Form* (see Tab #7)

Distribute the session evaluation form to be completed by participants and returned to you.



Participant Handouts

Module 4: Assessing District Policies and Programs for Marginal Learners

A school district or school may have elements of structure and operation that inhibit learning for some students. These elements may appear in district policies and procedures related to discipline, attendance, grade retention, suspension, graduation, placement in special education programs, or other areas. Parts of the school curriculum may lack meaning, involvement, and "connectedness" for some students. Specific instructional practices may unintentionally contribute to lack of involvement, a sense of detachment, and subsequent low academic achievement or misconduct. In this module, participants will assess aspects of their school or district policies, curriculum, and instructional practices in light of marginal learner needs. Participants will identify local conditions that may hinder achievement for marginal learners, and will propose key steps for taking action toward improvement.

Determining District/School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners

Trainer: Direct participants to think about their district **or** their school depending upon the question.

The purpose of this survey is to determine your opinions about conditions, practices, and approaches in your school or district that impact marginal learners, students who fail to succeed in the regular classroom. Please use the following scale to express your perceptions about the extent to which the items are evident in your school (or district). You may be more or less familiar with some areas of this survey than others. Please respond to items with your initial reactions and move on quickly to the next.

5 = Almost Always
4 = Frequently
3 = Sometimes
2 = Seldom
1 = Almost Never
DK = Don't Know or No Opinion

Your responses will remain anonymous and confidential. Only group responses will be reported. Please circle one response for each item.

A. SCHOOL BOARD POLICIES

1. The district philosophy or mission statement states the need for educational programs for all students, including those with a history of low achievement and persistent failure.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. The district policy on student attendance is widely communicated and generally accepted.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. The district policy on student discipline and school suspension is widely communicated and generally accepted.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. The district policy on student promotion/retention is widely communicated and generally accepted.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. The district policy on student graduation requirements is widely communicated and generally accepted.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. The district policy on substance abuse is widely communicated and generally accepted.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

7. The district or school distributes a student handbook(s) in which unacceptable student behaviors and the consequences of those behaviors are clearly stated.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

8. District policy requires the development of annual plans for school-based improvement.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

9. District policy requires annual performance reports from each school based on an analysis of student outcome data, including achievement tests, attendance, suspensions, and/or course enrollments.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

10. District policy requires that school-based advisory councils be established to provide educators with advice and feedback from parents, community, students, teachers, and administrators.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

11. District policy requires the education of special education students in the least restrictive environment reflecting the commitment to educating each child to the maximum extent appropriate in the school and classroom he/she would otherwise attend with the support necessary for success.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

B. CURRICULUM AND PROGRAM

OPTIONS

1. Learner outcomes reflect developmentally appropriate curriculum.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. Learner goals and objectives include civic responsibility and employability/work ethic outcomes as well as academic outcomes.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. Programs are planned to contribute to the development of positive attitudes and self confidence in capabilities.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. Learner goals and objectives include career awareness and occupational knowledge.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. Linkages characterized by collaboration among all programs and families served are maintained among preschool, child care providers, and service agencies to facilitate preschool to school transitions.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. There is a continuum of programs that provide for early detection of marginal learning behaviors, later intervention strategies to hold youth in school, and special recovery programs for youth who have left school and returned.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

7. There is a range of programs and practices and linkages (tutorial/remedial, counseling/advising, work related/experiential, social services) designed to meet the needs of different types of marginal learners.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

8. Programs use community services and resources (field trips, guest speakers) to enhance experiential learning and make school learning relevant to real life.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

9. Students have opportunities to test themselves in new roles and ways of relating to school. (Community and school service, career internships, political and social action, outdoor adventure)

5—4—3—2—1—DK

10. Programs and practices provide multicultural experiences that develop awareness of the contributions of all cultures and increase respect and tolerance for all learners.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

C. INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES

1. Teachers provide developmentally appropriate instruction and assessment.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. Teachers provide a daily overview of lesson activities, give clear written and verbal directions, provide advance organizers, specify criteria for success in advance, provide benchmarks or examples of exemplary work, reinforce key points, and check for understanding.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. Teachers describe the relationship of the current lesson to previous learnings and link student prior knowledge to new skills and concepts presented in meaningful contexts (real- life applications).

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. Teachers provide supervised practice of new learning in class.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. Teaching and learning activities employ multiple senses in learning—visual, hearing, moving, and touching.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. Teachers present the curriculum to fit the needs of a wide range of student learning styles using a variety of methods—visual and physical representations, abstract mind work, verbal explanations, peer explanations, manipulative investigation and practice, inductive reasoning, and/or deductive reasoning. The seven intelligences are addressed: linguistic, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

7. Teachers reteach, allow more practice, and retest to increase opportunities for success.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

8. Teachers inform students of the correctness of their responses and of their progress in the class.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

9. Teachers use frequent praise and encouragement for academic achievement.

   5—4—3—2—1—DK

10. Teachers incorporate study skills and work habits into the content of their classes.

    5—4—3—2—1—DK

11. Teachers assign homework that supports and reinforces classroom learning.

    5—4—3—2—1—DK

12. Teachers stress the importance of student responsibility through class assignments, individual projects, assessment (self, peer, teacher), and other graded learning activities.

    5—4—3—2—1—DK

13. Teachers demonstrate caring and positive attitudes toward all students.

    5—4—3—2—1—DK

14. Teachers provide alternatives to traditional paper/pencil, multiple choice tests in the assessment program to determine what students know and can do for the purposes of guiding instructional decisionmaking, to inform stakeholders, and to address accountability issues.

    5—4—3—2—1—DK

15. Teachers assume extended roles in helping students to succeed. This often blurs distinctions between teacher, parent, counselor, and student advocate.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

16. Teachers teach and reinforce collaborative learning strategies and skills.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

17. Teacher practices reflect the belief that all students can learn. For example, teachers share a common belief that even those who have failed and become hostile can change their attitudes and behaviors.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

D. FAMILY AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

1. Information about family and student rights, school procedures, and opportunities for family participation in school activities are communicated through the student handbook, newsletters, local newspaper, or parent-teacher organization activities.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. District or school assessment program results are published and shared with the community in open house meetings, community newsletters, and/or other media.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. District educators seek representation from families and community organizations on committees that are planning, conducting, and evaluating school programs.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. District or school leaders seek feedback from families and community employers regarding basic skills and work habits and the proficiency of graduates.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. District or school leaders communicate with local agencies (i.e., children and youth services, human resources, police department, unemployment agency, etc.)

5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. School administrators, teachers, and support staff communicate regularly with families to promote student growth and development. Efforts include conferences, home visits, school functions, and written contacts.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

E. LEADERSHIP

1. Leadership (i.e., school and district administration, etc.) provides direction and support for the development of school goals and a unifying mission with involvement of all stakeholders that establishes a framework for decisionmaking, is supported with specific plans for action, and is communicated to all members of the school community.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. Leaders unify and motivate staff to accomplish the larger goals of the district or school.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. Leaders acquire and allocate the resources needed to ensure the effectiveness of instructional programs.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. Leaders encourage and support staff who initiate innovative programs and practices for marginal learners.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. Leaders participate actively in curriculum decisions and involve staff in making program adjustments to work with marginal learners.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. Leaders regularly observe classes, reinforcing effective teaching practices and suggesting alternatives that research has shown to be critical to student achievement (i.e., daily success, review, time-on-task, attention to prior learning, authentic/meaningful applications and integration of curriculum, varied assessment opportunities, and lesson design).

5—4—3—2—1—DK

7. Leaders regularly provide staff with information and resources for assistance about programs and practices that are successful in helping marginal learners achieve.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

8. Leaders evaluate each teacher at least biannually and provide him/her a written report on performance with a wide range of students in a variety of contexts.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

9. Leaders meet with groups of teachers to review data (i.e., assessment results, attendance rates, graduation or promotion rates, discipline referrals and suspension rates, dropout rates, and grade/achievement distribution by class or subject) to analyze the effectiveness of present policies, and to determine implications for program improvement goals.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

10. Leaders make teaching assignments based on staff qualifications and the characteristics of the students enrolled.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

F. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES

1. Teachers participate in projects to develop and evaluate new curricular materials.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. Teachers participate in professional development programs to learn ways of adapting curriculum and instruction to meet the needs of marginal learners.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. Teachers and other leaders receive incentives or recognition for adapting programs to meet the needs of marginal learners.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. Individual and school needs are assessed regularly and professional development opportunities are planned in response to the needs, interests, and strengths of participants.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. Incentives such as released time or teacher stipends are provided to encourage participation in professional development programs and meeting.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. Teachers observe the teaching of colleagues and provide supportive feedback to each other.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

7. Groups of teachers (and other support personnel) meet to share information on student needs and progress and to work together to provide interventions and modify lessons and programs.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

8. Teachers regard themselves as team members and value the opportunity to plan and work together in implementing an instructional program.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

G. SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

1. The climate of schools and classrooms conveys an emphasis on learning and a value for achievement.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

2. The climate of schools and classrooms reflects respect for individual differences. (e.g., staff and students refrain from the use of sarcasm, ridicule, or intimidation of any form; a cooperative, helpful atmosphere prevails, etc.)

5—4—3—2—1—DK

3. Surroundings for learning are pleasant, clean, and in good repair.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

4. School property, classrooms, common areas, and corridors are safe and orderly.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

5. There is a pervasive atmosphere of caring for self, others, and property.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

6. There are opportunities for voluntary student participation in a variety of in-class and extracurricular activities designed to promote belonging, self-esteem, and sense of choice and control.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

7. The percentage of daily student attendance, level of achievement, and number of discipline referrals meets or approaches district and school goals.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

8. Rules for acceptable school behavior are frequently communicated, demonstrated, and practiced, and are consistently and fairly enforced. Compliance is recognized and rewarded.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

9. Students have opportunities for self-government and representative decisionmaking at the school or district level.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

10. High expectations for learning are held by students, staff, and the community.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

11. Students are provided varied and frequent opportunities to demonstrate achievement and mastery of learning objectives and to self-evaluate with feedback.

5—4—3—2—1—DK

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Profiling District/School Needs: Assessing Policy and Programs for Marginal Learners

The purpose of this profile is to display and analyze responses to the survey, *Determining District/School Needs: Assessing Policies and Programs for Marginal Learners,* about conditions, practices, and policies in your district or school that impact marginal learners—students who fail to succeed in the regular classroom.

Directions: Record your own responses; **or** total and average the responses from your school or district for each item if the survey was used to assess perceptions across individuals or across all schools. Use the following **response and interpretation scale** to record the average response to each item in each of the seven sections (A–G) of the survey.

Average Response Per Item	Interpretation
4.0 to 5.0	Highest Evidence of Effectiveness
3.5 to 3.99	Some Evidence of Effectiveness
3.0 to 3.49	Little Evidence of Effectiveness
less than 3.0	Least Evidence of Effectiveness

For each of the seven sections listed below, record in corresponding boxes the **item numbers** of survey items that were rated **Highest, Some, Little, and Least**. This will produce a profile of perceptions of your school's or district's conditions, practices, and policies that promote or hinder achievement in marginal learners based on input from respondents.

A. SCHOOL BOARD POLICY (11 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

B. CURRICULUM AND PROGRAM OPTIONS (10 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

C. INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES (17 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

D. PARENT AND COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS (6 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

E. LEADERSHIP (10 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

F. PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES (8 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

G. SCHOOL CLIMATE AND STUDENT INVOLVEMENT (11 items)

High evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Some evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lower evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Low evidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Marginal Learner Interventions Action Plan

School ______________________________ Date ____________________

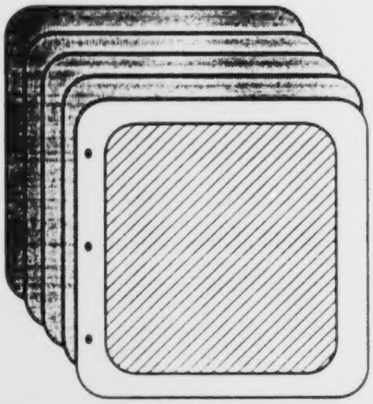
District ____________________________________

Goal: To implement interventions that will improve the overall achievement and performance of marginal learners.

Objective	Activities to reach objective	Person(s) responsible	Resources (human/material)	Evaluation (interim & final)	Timeline

We commit to higher levels of learning for *all* students and to this plan of action.

Signed ____



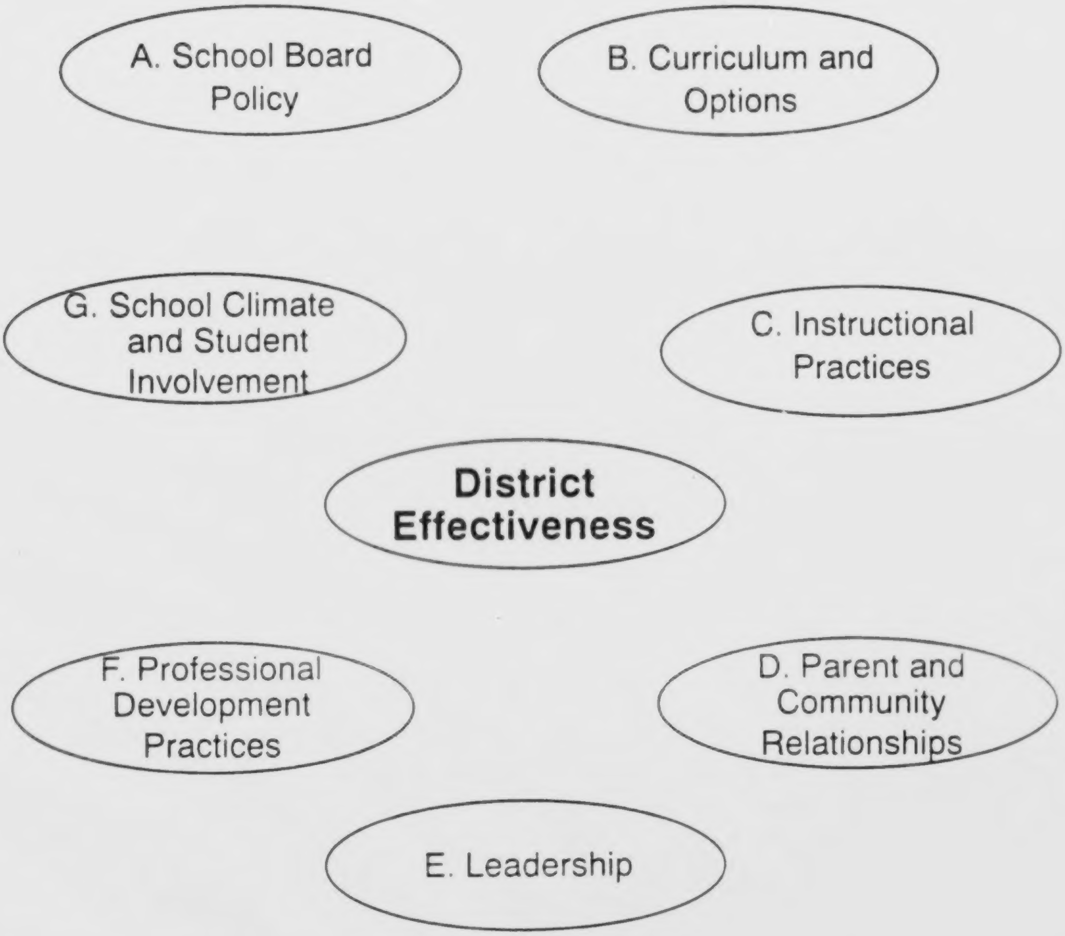
Transparencies

Module 4 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Conduct and analyze a self–assessment of school or district policies and practices that influence learning conditions for marginal students.
2. Develop a district effectiveness profile in regard to policies and programs for marginal learners.
3. Identify local conditions that may hinder achievement for marginal learners.
4. Create a plan of action for meeting the needs of marginal learners in participant schools and/or districts.

Assessing District Policy and Programs
–Overview–



A. School Board Policy

B. Curriculum and Options

C. Instructional Practices

D. Parent and Community Relationships

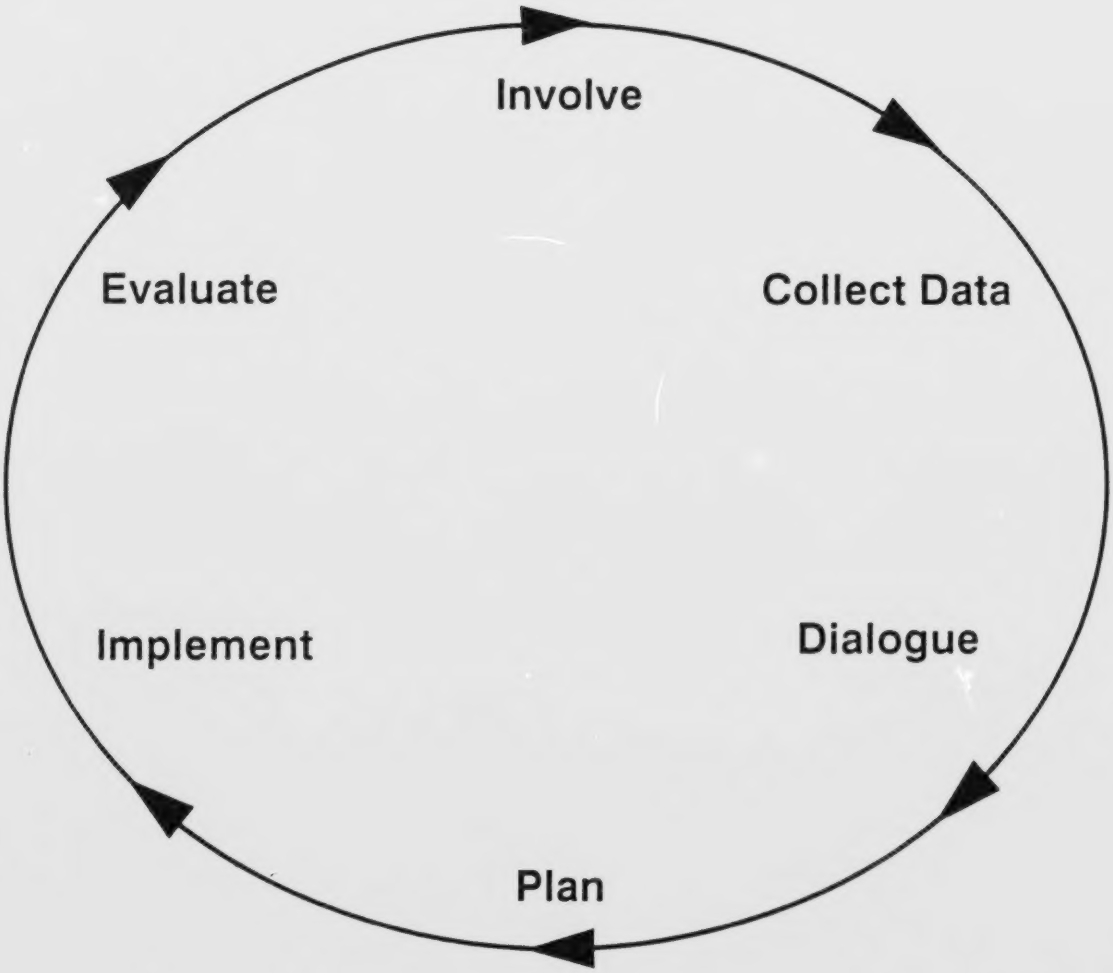
E. Leadership

F. Professional Development Practices

G. School Climate and Student Involvement

District Effectiveness

Planning Cycle



Involve

Collect Data

Dialogue

Plan

Implement

Evaluate

*Objective*Action*Time*Resources*Monitoring*Leadership

District Policy Checklist*

- Policies that foster the development of clear images and goals for each building.
- Policies that encourage faculties and building administrators to translate goals into measurable results.
- Policies that encourage teachers and administrators to trust their own initiative and imagination as promising sources of solutions to problems.
- Policies that acknowledge problems and conflict as a normal part of organizational life rather than a pathological condition to be avoided.
- Policies that foster a long term developmental view without paralyzing the ability to respond to needs for immediate action.

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*Adapted from Schlechty, P. C. (1985). District level policies and practices supporting effective school management and classroom instruction, in *Reaching For Excellence: An Effective Schools Sourcebook*. Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

Marginal Learner Interventions Action Plan

School ______________________________ Date ____________________

District ______________________________

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Signed ______________________________

MODULE 5

Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners: A Range of Approaches

At the heart of a school's mission lies the responsibility for helping learners find meaning in subject matter and power in the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Curriculum is one means to that end, serving to link content, teacher, and student. Inadequate learning and inappropriate behavior may indicate weak connections with some parts of the curriculum. Teachers can realize the importance of their key role in curricular decisionmaking for improved learning by viewing curriculum as environments they create for learning.

A number of programs and practices available to teachers provide frameworks through which marginal learners can be identified and assisted. In this module, participants will learn about characteristics of effective programs and interventions for marginal learners, review a range of approaches that have been developed by some districts and organizations, and reflect upon a variety of programs that may match the needs of their specific learner populations.

Module 5. Training Agenda for Focused Workshop
(3 hours and 45 minutes)

Time Required		
15 minutes	Activity 1	Introduction and Overview—group activity
60 minutes	Activity 2	Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs for Marginal Learners—interview design
30 minutes	Activity 3	Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners—lecturette and/or videotape activity
10 minutes	Break	
30 minutes	Activity 4	Range of Approaches—small group activity
20 minutes	Activity 5	Steps in Identifying an Ideal Solution—lecturette and individual activity
40 minutes	Activity 6	Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners
10 minutes	Activity 7	Considerations for Dialogue and Action—summary, question/answer, and next steps
5 minutes	Activity 8	Resource Review
5 minutes	Activity 9	Wrap-up and Evaluation
225 minutes		

Trainer's Instructions

Activity 1. Introductions and Overview

Trainer's Notes

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*
Transparencies:	*Module 5 Objectives* *Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*
Other:	Flip chart, blank transparency, markers

Begin with introductions of the trainers and the workshop. To provide focus, distribute and ask participants to read the introductory handout, *Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners* and reflect on effective programs and practices for marginal learners with which they are familiar. Invite participants to share names of programs for marginal learners. Record responses on a flip chart or blank transparency. Introduce the workshop objectives with the transparency *Module 5 Objectives*. Adjust trainer comments and directions to participant needs as the workshop proceeds.

Next, use the transparency *Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners* to explain the meaning of some of the key words used in the title of the workshop session.

If workshop participants have not had an opportunity to be introduced to one another, now might be a good time to have each person state their name; position; and school, district, or agency. Ask each person to name a program that they believe to be effective in addressing the needs of marginal learners. You may also encourage them to identify a program they have in place or are planning to implement in their school or district.

Activity 2. Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Interview Design Process* *Glasser's Control Theory Needs* (see Module 2) *Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy* (see Module 2) *Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process*
Transparency:	*Glasser's Control Theory Needs* (see Module 2)

Prior to beginning this activity, arrange chairs in sets of facing rows as illustrated on page 2 of the *Interview Design Process* handout.

To ensure success in meeting student needs, possible barriers should be identified and solutions sought prior to implementation of new programs and practices. This activity will help participants integrate what they have learned about motivation as need fulfillment with school circumstances that may affect their opportunity to meet the needs of marginal learners through new programs or practices.

Briefly review Glasser's five areas of need as outlined in Module 2, Activity 3. Refer to the transparency and handout *Glasser's Control Theory Needs* and the handout *Evaluation of My Psychological Needs Using Reality Therapy*. Distribute *Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process* and explain the purpose and process, then begin.

There are five interview design questions for this activity:

(1) What are two administrative constraints in schools that you believe conflict with a student's ability to meet his/her need for love and belonging?

(2) What are two administrative constraints in schools that you believe conflict with a student's ability to meet his/her need for power and worth?

(3) What are two societal influences that you think have made it more necessary for schools to allow students to meet all of their needs in school rather than in other areas of their lives?

(4) Which individual needs of teachers may come into conflict with student needs for fun and freedom? Please explain.

(5) One of the strongest trends toward school improvement has been that of school–based decisionmaking, an empowerment process which gives teachers, students, families, and community members more voice and responsibility in making decisions of curriculum, management, and budget within their home schools. Name two ways current trends toward school–based decisionmaking can have either a positive or negative influence on the faculty's ability to help students develop success identities.

During small group discussion of interview results, ask group members to identify one or two of the most common constraints mentioned during their interviews, then devise methods to overcome them. Each group should then compile a list of problems and solutions to report to the total group.

Following the timed interviewing and small group discussions of those participants with the same question, have a representative for each question report common responses while you record these on a blank transparency or flip chart paper.

In conclusion, explain that in the next activity participants will examine characteristics of programs that are effective for use with marginal learners.

Activity 3. Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners

Two approaches are presented here to engage participants with concepts related to effective programs for marginal learners: presentation and involvement. The first is to present them with a list of characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners based on available research. In this case, the workshop leader takes a more active role and presents the information while participants review the handout *Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners*. The second is to invite participants to build an initial list of effective characteristics of programs for marginal learners and to keep adding to the list as they develop new insights based on observing a sequence of videoclips or listening to brief oral overviews on specific programs for marginal learners.

If you have more time, and a videocassette player and monitor are available, you may want to show selected videoclips from several National Diffusion Network (NDN) validated programs appropriate for marginal learners (available from your state's NDN facilitator), and allow your participants to generalize about the common or essential characteristics. You may even team up with your state NDN facilitator or a certified NDN trainer from one of the nationally validated programs in conducting this workshop. While several NDN programs are described in workshop materials, new programs are added annually. Trainers are advised to contact their NDN state facilitators to determine most relevant programs for which materials are available and to preview awareness videos and materials while planning the workshop.

Directions for implementation of either strategy are presented below.

Presentation Method

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners*
Transparency:	*Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners*
Other:	flip chart and marker

Distribute the participant handout *Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners*. Explain that the list has been compiled from a review of research and literature on marginal learning. Key words and phrases might be displayed on flip chart paper. Use the transparency *Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners* to review each item on the list, checking frequently for understanding by asking participants to volunteer specific examples from district practice or their reading.

Involvement Method

Materials needed:	Flip chart or blank transparency markers Selected videoclips from NDN programs

Invite participants to suggest some characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners. The list need not be long—four to five items should suffice. Record responses on a blank transparency or flip chart paper.

Then show a selected clip from the NDN program, *Early Prevention of School Failure* or other NDN-validated program to assist marginal learners. (Advance the videotape to the segment that illustrates teachers screening and testing children for learning difficulties.)

Stop the videotape after about 5 minutes and ask the participants to reflect on what they have seen. You might ask, *Which of these characteristics did the program seem to portray? What additional characteristics come to mind now that you have seen this program in action?* Continue adding characteristics as volunteered by group members to the flip chart sheets or transparency.

Provide a brief overview of Cooperative Learning. (Alternatively, your state NDN facilitator may do this, or another certified NDN trainer may present the information.) Consult *Cooperative Learning: Student Teams, What Research Says to the Teacher*, NEA Professional Library, Washington, DC; or *Student Team Learning: An Overview and Practical Guide*, Robert Slavin, ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 295 910, as background reading; or the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development's (ASCD) *Cooperative Learning Series* videotapes and facilitator's manual, Alexandria, Virginia.

Pause to collect participant responses, and add these to your growing list of characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners.

By now, your list may be quite comprehensive. A sample of typical responses follows:

Preventive
Whole child
Team approach
Gives a reason to come to school
Assessment
Parents involved
Not a special program
Rewards feeling successful
Frequent monitoring of student learning
Specialized strategies and interventions
Pride in teaching someone else
Self–esteem, positive impression of school
Different learning and teaching strategies
Motivation linked to learning content
Setting up contracts, expectations, goals
(WIIFM) What's In It For Me?
Student ownership in building on strengths
Pays attention to planning, teacher training

Conclude by stating that the next activity will present a framework for matching programs to identified needs of marginal learners.

Activity 4. A Range of Approaches Developed By Other Districts and Organizations to Meet the Needs of Marginal Learners

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners: A Range of Approaches* *Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems* *Jigsaw II (Module 1)*
Transparency:	*Programs for Marginal Learners: Six Approaches*
Other:	Flip chart paper, markers

In Activity 3, participants examined characteristics associated with effective programs for dealing with the problems of marginal learners. Activity 4 helps participants conceptualize and categorize approaches by providing a typology or framework into which individual programs may be placed. This organizational framework can help district and school leaders make strategic decisions about the planning, selection, and implementation of programs to meet marginal learner needs in their district. You may wish to obtain an NDN brochure or catalogue from your state facilitator or program director for specific programs suggested in this activity (see no. 2 under the "Jigsaw Activity" which follows). Other activities may be substituted.

Distribute the participant handout, *Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners: A Range of Approaches*. Explain that the range of approaches listed has been compiled from a review of research and literature. The list represents an outline for a lecturette or brief oral presentation. Display key words and phrases on the overhead transparency *Programs for Marginal Learners: Six Approaches* or flip chart paper to accompany the oral presentation.

Based on a review of the literature and current practice, there appear to be six basic approaches taken by schools and districts in adopting or adapting programs designed to meet the needs of marginal learners:

1. Implementing **early identification and prevention** practices.
2. Providing **compensatory or remedial** programs.
3. Designing **occupational support-vocationally oriented programs**.
4. Offering **alternative school programs**.
5. Strengthening **inservice programs** for teachers.
6. Establishing out–of–school **youth recovery programs**.

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These approaches are considered in more detail in the participant handout *Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners: A Range of Approaches.*

Where time permits, more concrete experience with individual and exemplary programs developed to meet marginal learner needs may be provided. Distribute or refer to ***Jigsaw II*, included as a participant handout in Module 1, Activity 2** of this workshop manual to provide instructions for participant use of this activity.

Jigsaw Activity (20 minutes)

(1) Direct participants to form groups of three.

(2) Allow group members to choose which NDN–validated program they would like to present; or as trainer, select in advance three programs most relevant to marginal learners and appropriate to the audience. Each member of the group should read a different program description from the following choices of participant handouts provided in this module:

ADAPT, Project
Career Awareness Program, Project (Project CAP)
Career Education Responsive to Every Student (CERES)
Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)–Reading
City–As–School (CAS)
Coca–Cola Valued Youth Program, The
Cooperative Federation for Educational Experiences (COFFEE)
DeLaSalle Model
Diversified Educational Experiences Program (DEEP)
Early Recognition Intervention Network (ERIN)
Elsmere Project
Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI)
Graduation, Reality, And Dual–Role Skills (GRADS)
Help One Student To Succeed (HOSTS) Math
Help One Student To Succeed (HOSTS) Reading
High/Scope K–3 Curriculum
Intercept, Project
On the Way to SUCCESS in Reading and Writing with Early Prevention of School Failure (EPSF)
Reading and Content–area Resource Center (ReCaRe)
Reading Recovery
Success Understanding Mathematics (SUM)
Systematic Instructional Management Strategies (SIMS)
Systematic Teaching and Measuring Mathematics (STAMM)
Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI): Mathematics

Trainers are encouraged to review the most recent issue of NDN's *Educational Programs That Work* to determine additional programs and status of projects described herein.

(3) Instruct group members to review the brochure (if previously obtained from NDN facilitator or program developer) and the description of the program they select. Ask them to prepare a brief presentation (3 minutes total) to their small group that covers the following information:

Target audience
Program description
Supporting research (if available)
Your assessment of its applicability/effectiveness for marginal learners

(4) They will have 10 minutes to read and prepare; 3 minutes to present and answer questions.

(5) Debrief the activity by discussing this involvement method, its use in their settings, and commonalities across programs.

Following this hands-on experience with individual programs, the workshop leader presents the range of approaches framework, outlined at the beginning of the trainer's instructions for this activity, using the transparency, *Programs for Marginal Learners: Six Approaches*.

Ask volunteer participants to place the program they have reviewed into this framework. Post the framework on a sheet of flip chart paper and record the acronym or title for the program under the appropriate heading.

Examples

1. Implementing **early identification and prevention practices**.

   On the Way to Success with EPSF
   High/Scope

2. Providing **compensatory or remedial programs**.

   SUM
   IPIMS
   STAMM
   TAI
   ReCaRe
   Reading Recovery
   ERIN
   and others

3. Designing **occupational support-vocationally oriented programs**.

   Project CAP
   Elsmere
   CERES

4. Offering **alternative school programs**.

   C.O.F.F.E.E.
   City As School
   DeLaSalle model
   DEEP

5. Strengthening **inservice programs for teachers**.

   ECRI
   Reading Recovery

6. Establishing **out–of–school youth recovery programs**.

   C.O.F.F.E.E.
   and others

Point out that the next activity assists participants in selecting appropriate solutions to marginal learner problems.

Activity 5. Steps in Identifying an Ideal Solution

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems* *A Checklist of Major Goals for Marginal Learner Programs* *A Checklist of Features for Comparing Marginal Learner Programs*
Transparencies:	*Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems: Seven Steps* *Ideal Solutions for Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners*
Other:	Flip chart paper, markers 5" x 7" index cards

The purpose of this activity is to help participants select an appropriate solution to their particular marginal learner problem. Selecting a solution to an educational problem requires an accurate understanding of the current conditions and the ultimate fit of that solution with the overall goals for school improvement in the district or school. Begin with a brief lecturette emphasizing the following concepts.

Lecturette Concepts

1. **A clear definition and thorough exploration of the problem and resulting needs** is essential to selection of an appropriate solution. Attractive or innovative solutions, by themselves, may not address persistent and underlying dilemmas. By merely treating symptoms, the more fundamental questions (*Who do we really need to serve here? What do we really need to do for this population?*) may go unanswered.

2. A second step in selecting a solution is **agreement on a set of criteria**. Few districts or schools do this until they have navigated the universe, become bewildered or lost, or grown frustrated by a lack of action while the search for the elusive, perfect, and undiscovered program drags on. Identifying local resources, predispositions, and constraints early in the effort can help save time and facilitate decisionmaking. Seeking recommendations from external agencies such as the state department of education consultants or Regional Laboratory or state professional association staff may assist. Ultimately, choices will be easier to make because the quality and quantity of information gathered along the way has improved. At this point, **how** decisions are made can become as important as **what** choices are made.

3. Finally, **solutions must be communicated and described** in specific, measurable, observable, and relevant ways. Careful definition of the new practices or processes can help prevent implementation of incomplete solutions, misinterpretation of solutions, half-hearted compliance, and a general sense of uninvolvement.

Directions to the Workshop Leader

Distribute the participant handout *Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems*. Use the overhead transparency *Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems: Seven Steps* or print the seven steps in the process on a sheet of flip chart paper. Guide participants through each step of the process, providing examples, asking for examples from participant experience, and amplifying on the implications and importance of each step in moving schools closer to their desired goals.

Under the step "Defining the problem locally," distribute the participant handout *A Checklist of Major Goals for Marginal Learner Programs*. Invite participants to use the checklist to select goal statements that seem appropriate to their school or district. You may want to use the checklist exercise as a way to caution against having too many goals, or to illustrate the need for several different kinds of solutions.

Under the step "Developing criteria for the solution," distribute the participant handout *A Checklist of Features for Comparing Marginal Learner Programs*. This handout contains practical considerations frequently used by schools and districts in adapting and adopting educational programs. Stress the item "Implementation requirements clear." The steps needed to establish clear implementation practices are frequently overlooked by program planners.

Ask participants to use their handouts and information from the lecturette to select an "ideal solution" for addressing a marginal learner issue in their classrooms or schools and state why they believe it fits their needs (their rationale). Distribute 5" x 7" index cards for note-making or suggest writing on the handout or blank paper. Allow 5 minutes "think-and-write" time. Call on several volunteers for responses and record their solutions and key words from their rationales on the transparency *Ideal Solutions for Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners*, or on flip chart paper in two columns.

Activity 6. Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners* *Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*
Transparencies:	*Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting* *Key Elements in Planning for the Implementation of Programs for Marginal Learners*
Other:	Index cards Flip chart paper, markers

Research has shown that **teachers can and do use practices developed by others when those practices can be described clearly and when they have evaluation data to support their effectiveness**. Whether your district intends to build a new program, policy, or set of practices from scratch, or whether your district will identify, select, and apply materials or procedures developed elsewhere, there are some key elements for program planners to consider. These are detailed in the participant handout *Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*.

Directions to the Workshop Leader

Prior to this activity, print the following statements on a flip chart page or display the overhead transparency *Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*:

1. School improvement activities must address persistent problems and increase the capacity of the organization to attack future ones.
2. School improvement cannot happen unless something observably different occurs between teachers and students.
3. School improvement efforts are more likely to have lasting effects when the solutions to problems are defined as classroom practices so that teachers have clear images of what desired practices look like and what is expected.

Present them as challenging assertions made by researchers Susan Loucks-Horsley and Leslie F. Hergert in their book, *An Action Guide to School Improvement*.

Ask participants to form table groups of six to eight for **Tellaround**. Distribute three index cards for each participant and a sheet of flipchart paper and marker for the group. Each group should appoints a recorder and reporter. Then each participant writes a brief response to each of three statements on a separate card. Responses to each statement are shared one at a time around the table. The recorder notes responses on flip chart paper. Allow about ten minutes for sharing and recording. Ask reporters to report out to the total group the most common responses from the table. The trainer consolidates and records responses on one flip chart sheet. Repetitious responses can be check marked.

Ask participants to consider and discuss, at their tables, various aspects of an action plan to implement a new program for marginal learners in their schools or classrooms. Ask volunteers to share initial steps that may be required. Record responses on a flip chart. Typical responses might include the following:

conduct needs assessment
develop timeline
locate resources
administer and examine the results of pretests and other assessments
design objectives and evaluation methods
collect student data on attendance, discipline, achievement, etc.

Distribute the participant handout *Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*. Assign one or two items from the list of 12 key elements listed on the last two pages of the handout to each of the table groups. Ask participants to discuss the items assigned to them in light of their own district practices and past experiences. At the end of 10 minutes, quickly tally responses from each of the discussion groups, by item (see list below), in response to the question, "Does this practice generally occur in your school or district setting?" Use a check mark to represent "yes" responses on the transparency, *Key Elements in Planning for the Implementation of Programs for Marginal Learners*, to determine the most common planning practices of the group.

Item

1. Choosing program staff carefully
2. Determining existing skills
3. Giving the program a fair trial
4. Refraining from making changes too early
5. Putting in extra time
6. Providing both initial and follow-up training
7. Providing released time and stipends
8. Assigning support roles
9. Establishing a realistic timeline
10. Evaluating the daily impact of new practices
11. Making refinements as you go
12. Ensuring that the new practice "sticks"

Activity 7. Considerations for Dialogue and Action

Materials needed: (all optional, as time allows)

Handouts:	*Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems* *In Summary*
Transparency:	*Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*
Other:	flip chart or transparency and markers

The workshop leader should be particularly sensitive to the needs of the group at this time. Previous activities may have taken more time than planned due to circumstances beyond anyone's control. Important issues may have surfaced that need immediate clarification or explanation. This time should be regarded as flexible. If time permits, provide opportunities for participants to raise questions or issues for group discussion. More often than not, participants will have a lot to offer by way of perspectives and perceptions. As a contingency, however, you may review the Activity 5 participant handout *Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems* to explore the appropriateness of suggested solutions to participants' settings or distribute the handout *In Summary* as a way of bringing closure to the workshop session.

Review the Activity 1 transparency, *Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners*. Ask participants to suggest examples for each of the first four definitions: "adapting," "adopting," "program," and "practice," based on learnings from this module's activities. List responses on the transparency or a flip chart.

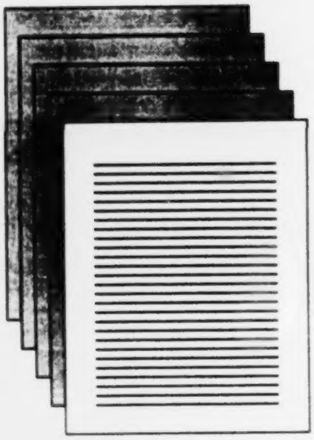
Activity 8. Resource Review

Refer to displayed key resources on helping marginal learners. These resources serve as materials available for further reading, reflection, and professional development.

Activity 9. Wrap-up and Session Evaluation

Materials needed: *Workshop Evaluation Form* (Module 7)

Distribute a session evaluation form to be completed by participants and returned to you.



Participant Handout

Module 5: Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners: A Range of Approaches

At the heart of a school's mission lies the responsibility for helping learners find meaning in subject matter and power in the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Curriculum is one means to that end, serving to link content, teacher, and student. Inadequate learning and inappropriate behavior may indicate weak connections with some parts of the curriculum. Teachers can realize the importance of their key role in curricular decisionmaking for improved learning by viewing curriculum as environments they create for learning.

A number of programs and practices available to teachers provide frameworks through which marginal learners can be identified and assisted. In this module, participants will learn about characteristics of effective programs and interventions for marginal learners, review a range of approaches that have been developed by some districts and organizations, and reflect upon a variety of programs that may match the needs of their specific learner populations.

Interview Design Process

Summary

Interview Design provides a process in which everyone participates in asking questions, answering questions, and analyzing responses. The interaction is lively. People come to know each other in a way more meaningful than simple introductions. This is a means to quickly gather high quality information from a group in a conference or workshop setting and at the same time ensure that everyone has an opportunity to participate by voicing opinions and by listening carefully to others.

Purposes

1. To quickly generate and analyze data from a large group of participants on a number of questions.
2. To balance and increase participant involvement in (a) collecting information, (b) analyzing data, and (c) reporting conclusions.
3. To promote active involvement, participant equality, candor, informality, objectivity, involvement in analysis, and excitement and energy.

Time Required: 1 to 2 hours

Generally, the process can be completed in 1 to 2 hours. The time is dependent on the size of the group and the number of questions used. Although interview time does not increase significantly with the size of the group, more time is required for analysis with larger work groups.

Group Size: 10 to 500

Interview Design has been used effectively with groups ranging in size from 10 to 500 members.

Room Arrangements: rows of chairs, tables and chairs

Two seating arrangements are required. For Step 1, the interview, chairs should be arranged in double rows facing one another. Match the number of chairs in each row to the number of questions. The number of rows will depend upon the number of participants. Arrange the room prior to the session (see diagram).

For Step 2, data analysis, arrange chairs around tables (one for each question) to accommodate the size of each analysis group (the number of participants with the same question).

Diagram

Room Arrangement for Interview Design

Step 1: Interview.
25 participants; 6 questions, A–F; 2 sets of rows, 6 participants each

Stayers	Movers	Movers	Stayers
A	A	A	A
B	B	B	B
C	C	C	C
D	D	D	D
E	E	E	E
F	F	F	F
F			

Materials Needed: pencils, copies of questions, writing surface, easel paper, markers, easels or masking tape, kitchen timer or clock

For interviewing, each participant will need a pen or pencil, a copy of the appropriate questions, and a surface upon which to write (e.g., a conference folder or pad of paper). Facilitators should distribute the questions on the appropriate chairs (see diagram) before the process begins.

During analysis, each group needs easel paper, markers, and an easel (or masking tape to post easel paper).

The facilitator needs a kitchen timer or a clock to time the interviews.

Description of the Process

Preparation:

Develop the Questions

The questions must be developed beforehand, after the specific content is identified. Ask respondents for a specific number of responses in each question and design questions to direct organization of responses into useful categories.

Prepare 4–10 questions, determined by the number of participants and the time available for the activity. Prepare a few more questions than you plan to use, in case the number of participants changes. Type each question at the top of an Interview Sheet with directions to the interviewer as in the handout for Activity 7 of Module 2. Duplicate as many sets of questions as there will be interview lines.

Prepare for the Interview Process

Chairs are arranged in sets of rows (multiples of 2) so that participants face one another in pairs. The interviews are conducted in these rows of chairs prearranged according to the numbers of questions and people. For example:

Group Size	Possible Configurations	# of Questions
10	2 lines of 5	5
20	2 lines of 10, or 4 lines of 5	10 or 5
24	4 lines of 6, or 6 lines of 4	6 or 4
30	6 lines of 5, or 5 lines of 6	5 or 6
36	4 lines of 9, or 6 lines of 6	9 or 6

If the group size does not conveniently match the number of questions, (1) have an extra question in one set of rows. This pair will have only two members in their analysis group; or (2) Pull a chair up at the end of the nonmoving lines. Two people work as a team to ask and answer questions. This works well to incorporate latecomers.

To conserve time and eliminate confusion, distribute the questions after the chairs are arranged and before the participants have moved into the chairs. See the diagram.

Step 1: The Interview

After participants have moved into their chairs, allow some time for them to read the directions and their assigned question. Stress that their role while interviewing is to listen for comprehension. They should record everything that is said to them, even if it is a duplication, and only ask questions for clarification.

Select one row of each set of rows and ask them to begin by posing their question to the person facing them and carefully record responses. After 3 minutes, call time. The respondents now switch roles to become interviewers. Note: For the first 6 minutes, the interviewer and respondent have the same question. This allows each to get comfortable with their question and with the interview process.

After both people facing each other have asked and answered their questions, one row of participants in each set moves. (Designate one row of each set the "movers" and the facing row the "stayers." It is helpful if the movers have plenty of space to move; stayers can easily have their backs against the wall.) In the movers' row, everyone should move one seat to the left, and the person at the far left end should walk around to the other end of the row. Remind movers to take their questions with them when they change seats.

Continue in this manner, signaling time after each 3–minute interval (a kitchen timer comes in handy), until everyone has responded to all the questions or time is finished for this segment of the Interview Design. This phase should take about 30 minutes, depending on the number of questions (5 questions X 3 minutes X 2 participants = 30 minutes).

Step 2: Analyze Data

After interviewing, all individuals asking the same question assemble and combine their recorded responses. They should identify the major themes and select only the most frequent responses, to keep the report brief. Each group should write its question on the top of a flip chart and a summarize the most frequent responses below.

This phase should take about 10 minutes, depending on the size of the groups.

Step 3: Report Results

Each group should present a brief report to the total group, perhaps 2–3 minutes. Questions can be held until the end or taken after each report as long as the discussion does not get out of hand. The easel sheets can be used throughout the rest of the workshop as background data or the data can be typed up and distributed for reference. This phase should take about 20 minutes, depending on the number of questions and the amount of discussion generated.

The Interview Design Process was introduced to AEL by Oralie McAfee, a colleague from Colorado Northern State University, presently in private consulting from Evergreen, Colorado. She, in turn, learned of it from The Wharton School, Management and Behavioral Science Center.

Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process

Question 1

Directions: Using the question below interview the person across from you. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a respondent if needed.

Question: What are two administrative constraints in schools that you believe conflict with a student's ability to meet his/her need for love and belonging?

Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process

Question 2

Directions: Using the question below interview the person across from you. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a respondent if needed.

Question: What are two administrative constraints in schools that you believe conflict with a student's ability to meet his/her need for power and worth?

Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process

Question 3

Directions: Using the question below interview the person across from you. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a respondent if needed.

Question: What are two societal influences that you think have made it more necessary for schools to allow students to meet all of their needs in school rather than in other areas of their lives?

Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process

Question 4

Directions: Using the question below interview the person across from you. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a respondent if needed.

Question: Which individual needs of teachers may come into conflict with student needs for fun and freedom? Please explain.

Examining Constraints to Implementing Motivational Programs: Interview Design Process

Question 5

Directions: Using the question below interview the person across from you. You will be interviewing each individual in the line that you are facing. Record each individual's responses even if they are the same as someone else's. Record the responses in the space under the question and on the back of the page. You will have three minutes to conduct each interview. Record each respondent's ideas, not your interpretation. Reread the question to a respondent if needed.

Question: One of the strongest trends toward school improvement has been that of school-based decisionmaking, an empowerment process which gives teachers, students, families, and community members more voice and responsibility in making decisions of curriculum, management, and budget within their home schools. Name two ways current trends toward school-based decisionmaking can have either a positive or negative influence on the faculty's ability to help students develop success identities.

Characteristics of Effective Programs For Marginal Learners

Effective programs for marginal learners are characterized by **a strong leader** who plays an empowered advocate role.

- "Someone waves the banner, somebody carries the flag."

Effective programs for marginal learners **address affective as well as cognitive development**.

Effective programs for marginal learners allow for **flexibility and alternatives** in meeting needs —i.e.,

- a district may operate several projects for different kinds of marginal learners; or
- a district may operate projects for early identification, intervention, or later recovery of school drop-outs.

Effective programs for marginal learners have **clearly articulated goals** and objectives, although strategies and techniques may vary.

Effective programs for marginal learners are successful to the degree that they **address the individual needs** of youth in the populations served.

Effective programs for marginal learners generally exhibit some of the same characteristics as the schools studied in **effective schools research**, i.e.,

- teacher efficacy/high expectations,
- frequent monitoring/constant feedback,
- time on task/academic learning time, and
- emphasis on basic skills.

Effective programs for marginal learners are **generally small in size** (25-50 students; 2-6 staff).

Effective programs for marginal learners show relative autonomy and an **identity apart** from the school or district, i.e.,

- own space, facilities, and staff.

Effective programs for marginal learners are characterized by a committed teaching force having a unique culture of sharing and **extended relationships with students**.

Effective programs for marginal learners **experiment with non-traditional** curricula, learning materials, staffing, and instructional strategies.

Effective programs for marginal learners employ **experiential** educational strategies designed to engage youth with institutions and adult role models not accessible through the traditional curriculum.

Effective programs for marginal learners are characterized by a positive atmosphere and **supportive peer culture**.

Effective programs for marginal learners rely on **accurate data and timely identification** of student performance and achievement.

Effective programs for marginal learners demonstrate **outreach to the home** and working relationships with parents.

Source:
Wehlage, Gary G., *Fastback 197, Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation*, Bloomington, Indiana: 1983, pp. 32-40.
Dougherty, Barbara, and Palm, Jan, *Staying In*, Vocational Studies Center, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin: 1987.

Meeting the Needs of Marginal Learners: A Range of Approaches

1. **Implementing early identification and prevention practices.**

Early identification programs are frequently available in English and sometimes in the languages of linguistic minorities; this makes it easier to involve parents in the early identification and remediation of developmental learning deficiencies that might adversely affect school performance. Most early identification program materials include screening instruments, classroom management and pupil performance monitoring guides, classroom activities, and special materials for use with parents.

Example: EPSF (Early Prevention of School Failure)

This program is designed to prevent school failure by identifying the developmental levels and learning styles of children ages four to six years. It employs screening, conferencing, and effective teaching strategies to prevent children from experiencing early failure in school. The program also provides training to teachers so that they can acquire the skills and competencies for matching curriculum to levels of development.

2. **Providing compensatory or remedial programs.**

Compensatory or remedial programs are designed for students who are unmotivated, low-achieving, disadvantaged, of low socio-economic status, or who have not had equal opportunity to learn basic skills. The premise is that if the program can improve basic academic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics, that it will make up for past failures; students who can do the work will feel good about themselves and contribute positively in the classroom. At the secondary level, the goal is to prepare students to go into regular classrooms, enter a work program or both.

Example: Proviso Reading Model

The Proviso Reading Model is a program of structured sequential activities for language arts, mathematics, and science courses to remedy serious reading problems among student in grades 9-12. The program is based on four convictions: (1) poor readers can improve, (2) a sound reading program must be based on reading as a thinking skill, (3) the skills generally defined as reading may be learned through a carefully devised program of "visual literacy" (media reading), oral communication, composition, language, and listening activities within regular classes rather than in pull-out or tutorial activities, and (4) reluctant students can become excited about learning using attractive materials and strategies.

3. **Designing occupational support-vocationally oriented programs.**

Occupational support programs emphasize reinforcement of existing proficiencies rather than remediation of basic skill deficiencies; they generally use materials or topics related to a service/occupational/vocational area; they may be designed to achieve practical application of skills necessary to employability.

Example: EBCE (Experience-Based Career Education)

EBCE is a partnership program between school and community, integrating basic skills, life skills, and career development. EBCE can be either a supplement to traditional instruction or a full-time alternative program, and may be located off-campus.

Students in grades 9 through 12 are assisted in developing skills in time management and short- and long-range planning with the expectation that they will demonstrate increasing maturity and responsibility. Individual projects are completed that address specific academic, life skill, and career development objectives. Short term explorations are followed by longer "learning levels." Proficiency in a variety of competencies must be demonstrated.

4. **Offering alternative school programs.**

Alternative school programs are most often for disaffected, alienated, or underachieving youth who are "turned off" by the regular school program. At the secondary level, unsuccessful and disinterested students are frequently placed in typically smaller and more informal programs where individualized attention and instruction is emphasized. Most learning occurs through work or service-related activity, although many alternative school programs provide additional strategies to encourage the development of basic skills. Many of the often rigid rules of the host school or system are bent in order to keep the learner in school. Often, totally separate facilities are provided. In alternative school programs, work/experiential learning is usually coupled with counseling/socialization in attitudes and work habits.

Example: Project DEEP

The Diversified Educational Experiences Program models a way for secondary school classrooms "to create an academic environment emphasizing success for every learner while decreasing learner hostility to educational institutions." Students in the DEEP classroom identify needs, formulate objectives, develop task assignments, receive teacher debriefing, and participate in their own evaluations. Learners experience alternative ways to create, gather, develop, and display information. The program makes extensive use of electronic and non-electronic media. The role of the teacher is that of advisor, consultant, and learning-systems manager.

5. **Strengthening inservice programs.**

Inservice programs are designed to assist content-area teachers adapt regular classroom practices to accommodate the needs of marginal learners. Although the primary focus of this intervention is the classroom teacher, the intent is to minimize the gap between student performance (as measured by tests of basic skills and demonstrated by classroom attitude and behavior) and the competencies necessary for them to achieve in the regular classroom. Some of the better examples of this approach are found among the programs offered through the National Diffusion Network (NDN). Many of the innovative practices of the National Diffusion Network have met the performance standards of the Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP) which attests to the potential and effectiveness of the strategies employed in the inservice training.

Example: TESA

Teacher Expectations and Student Achievement (TESA) promotes greater sensitivity among teachers to the needs of low achieving students, grades K-12. A three-year study revealed that students of teachers who were trained in implementing the research-based instructional practices of TESA experienced significant academic gains and a reduction of absenteeism. Basically, researchers found that most teachers give students viewed as high achievers more opportunities to recite, answer questions, and respond in class than students viewed as low achievers. In the TESA training program, teachers discuss and practice techniques of attending to, involving, and responding to students in a more equitable manner.

6. **Establishing out of school youth recovery programs.**

Out of school youth recovery programs are aimed at providing opportunities for individuals to complete educational programs and qualify for graduation requirements after they have actually been expelled or suspended, or voluntarily withdrawn. The recovery programs are generally accompanied by other special support services—health, welfare, social services, career or vocational counseling—in collaboration with other state or local agencies.

Example: Project TAPP

The Teenage Pregnancy and Parenting Program (TAPP) is a case management program for teenage parents coordinated by the San Francisco Schools and Family Service Agency. The case manager assesses the educational, health, and support needs of the male or female student, secures services, and monitors the process by working closely with both public and private agencies.

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Educational Programs That Work

The Catalogue of the National Diffusion Network (NDN)

"Linking the Nation
With Excellence"

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"Educational Programs That Work - 21st Edition." Sopris West, Longmont, Colorado (1995).
1-(800) 547-6747.

ADAPT, Project. A comprehensive, replicable service delivery model for secondary and postsecondary learning disabled students ages 12 through 21. The project increases the number of students receiving full-time service in the educational mainstream, reduces the dropout rate of learning disabled students, and improves their basic academic skills.

Audience Approved by PEP for secondary learning disabled (LD) students (grades 6-12) and learning disabled adults in postsecondary vocational education programs.

Description Project ADAPT augments a school's existing LD service delivery system, improving the structure by increasing knowledge, skills, awareness, communication, and coordination. Central to the program is the concept of producing student outcomes through two key elements: changing the way teachers teach (Teacher ADAPTation) and changing the way students learn (Student ADAPTation). A two-day training for resource room personnel, a team of content area teachers, and support staff is the initial activity. The returning team works to modify existing structural and attitudinal barriers.

Three key areas for teacher adaptation are utilized: teaching skills, curricula and materials, and collaboration. The project training process instructs teachers in using alternative organization, management, presentation, practice, and assessment techniques to adapt the regular classroom environment for the LD student. All teachers learn to assess both their curricula and their teaching materials for appropriateness.

Student adaptation is in the domain of the resource teacher. The two program components focus directly upon the needs of secondary and postsecondary LD students: re-teaching and adaptive skill instruction. The goals are to remediate basic skill deficiencies and to equip learners with skills that will transfer to the regular classroom and the world of work.

Evidence of Effectiveness Twenty-two percent of learning disabled students were mainstreamed on a full-time basis after one year in the project; 43 percent after two years (national mainstreaming rate is 15 percent). Fewer than five percent of LD students dropped out of school (national rate for LD student is 38 percent). LD students in the program achieved greater than expected gains in basic academic skills.

Requirements For schools that have an LD program, no special staff are required. Two days of training for the core group are required. The major prerequisite is a moderate level of staff commitment. Minimal equipment and supplemental materials for students are suggested.

Costs The costs for adopting the project are travel, lodging, and per diem for one trainer during the two-day training, training manual ($25.00) for each participant, and a training fee (to be negotiated).

Services Awareness materials are available at no cost. The project staff is available for awareness sessions (costs to be negotiated). Implementation and follow-up services are available to adopters (costs to be negotiated). Statistical analysis of evaluation data is provided to all school districts submitting pre-posttests scores.

Contact Celia Myers, 123 East Broadway, Cushing, OK 74023. (918) 225-1882.

Developmental Funding: Title VI-G Child Service
Demonstration Center, state, and Office of
Special Education and Postsecondary Demonstration Projects.

PEP No. 90-06 (2/9/90)

Career Awareness Program, Project (Project CAP). A program for infusing career awareness into the regular curriculum, emphasizing the relationship between careers and basic academic skills.

Audience Approved by PEP for students in grades K-6.

Description Project Career Awareness Program (Project CAP) is designed to complement the basic skills curriculum of the school while introducing students to the wide variety of ways in which people work. At the same time, students are able to grow in awareness of themselves in relation to the world of work. Project CAP student materials at each grade level consist of 32 different lessons and learning activity packets. Each learning activity packet contains an academic skill and a career script or story that presents the required tools, tasks, education or training, and economic rewards as well as the concept that work is a way of life. For example, with one packet, fourth grade students learn about the job of a land surveyor and practice a metric measurement skill as part of their math program. The skills range from those in reading and mathematics, to those in science, social studies, and language arts. Packets may be completed in as little as twenty minutes or may be expanded to cover a longer unit of time depending upon the lesson and the individual teacher's plan.

Evidence of Effectiveness Students participating in the program are significantly more aware of careers than comparable nonparticipating students as measured by a project-developed and validated criterion-referenced test of knowledge of occupations and the training/education required to enter them.

Requirements Project CAP requires no special staff or facility. Teachers at potential adopting sites are required to attend a four- to six-hour training session and to purchase materials.

Costs Start-up cost is approximately $130 to cover materials and supplies for a class of 25 students, plus a one-time training expense to cover travel, per diem, and a $200 honorarium.

Services In addition to training and materials, follow-up consultation is available upon request.

Contact **Lena Sparkman, Coordinator, Project Career Awareness Program, Boston Mountain Educational Cooperative, P. O. Box 13, Greenland, AR 72737. (501) 443-3336.**

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title III and local.

PEP No. 78-178R2 (3/11/93)

Career Education Responsive to Every Student (CERES). A comprehensive career education program that enhances instructional time and prepares students for employment trends of the future, for grades K-12.

Audience Approved by JDRP for all students grades K-12.

Description Career Education Responsive to Every Student (CERES) is a comprehensive career education infusion program for grades K-12. The program purpose is to provide students with the basic academic and employability skills necessary for competent, productive performance both in school and after leaving school. The program is tailored to the developmental ages of students at the different grade levels. The objectives are that students will: (1) identify and practice responsible work habits, (2) acquire knowledge of diverse occupations (training preparation and job duties), and (3) apply basic skills to career decisions and actions (job-seeking and job-retention).

CERES enhances instructional time and makes education more efficient. CERES prepares students for the employment trend of the future. CERES is easy to use. The materials are self-contained and do not require extensive supplementary resources. They are flexible and may be used by any teacher, with students of various abilities and at various levels, ranging from an individual classroom or school to district-wide use.

CERES includes systematic, institutional management procedures to enhance and strengthen the involvement of local business and community groups.

CERES is a low-cost program to implement. Training costs include training materials, consultant fee, and travel and per diem expenses. Program implementation (instructional, management, and evaluation) materials are available at cost. CERES materials are appropriate for all students including special education and at-risk youth. Local Educational Agencies should provide release time for training.

Requirements The program's activities are easily transportable since they can be implemented without disrupting existing programs. The program can be adopted by individual teachers and/or schools. One day of training is required to get the program started. One day of follow-up inservice is advised.

Services Awareness material is available at no cost. Staff are available for out-of-state awareness, training, and follow-up sessions.

Contact **Barbara Baer, Program Director, 3425 Pioneer Road, Hughson, CA 95326. (209) 883-0593.**

JDRP No. 78-182R 5/25/78 **(4/26/83)**
Recertified **(5/17/89)**

Developmental Funding: USOE Career Education.

Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) - Reading. A program designed to put into practical form classroom organizational and instructional activities identified in research on cooperative learning, reading, and writing for grades 3-4.

Audience Approved by PEP for students in grades three and four. Has been used successfully in grades 2-6.

Description Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC) - Reading is a comprehensive program for teaching reading and writing. It has three principle elements: story-related activities, direct instruction in reading comprehension, and integrated language arts/writing. In CIRC, teachers use basal readers and/or novels, much as they would in traditional reading programs. Students are assigned to teams composed of pairs of students from the same or different reading groups. Students work in pairs on a series of cognitively engaging activities, including reading to each other; predicting how stories will end; summarizing stories to each other; writing responses to stories; and practicing spelling, decoding, and vocabulary. Students work in teams to understand the main idea and master other comprehension skills. During language arts periods, students also write drafts, revise and edit one another's work, and prepare to "publish" their writing.

In most CIRC activities, students follow a sequence of teacher instruction, team practice, peer preassessments, quiz, and team recognition. Students do not take the quiz until their teammates have determined they are ready. **Team recognition** involves giving certificates to teams based upon the performance of all team members on all reading and writing activities. Because students work on materials appropriate to their reading levels, they have **equal opportunities for success**. Students' contributions to their teams are based on their quiz scores and their final, independently written compositions, which ensures individual accountability.

CIRC Reading and CIRC Language Arts/Writing provide a structure for teachers to teach and students to learn which helps all students become more effective readers and writers.

Evidence of Effectiveness The results of three separate studies indicate that CIRC has a consistent and educationally significant effect on the reading achievement of students in the elementary grades. More specifically, significantly greater gains were made in CIRC-Reading classes than control classes on the California Achievement Test's reading scales for comprehension and vocabulary, and on individually administered Durrell Informal Reading Inventory scales.

Requirements CIRC-Reading requires two days of training for teachers and administrators, plus materials. Additional training/follow-up days are recommended. No additional staff is needed. For the installation year, materials costs are approximately $240 per class; for subsequent years, $100 per class.

Services Awareness materials are available at no cost. Program staff members are available for awareness sessions, traning sessions, and technical assistance (costs to be negotiated). Materials for some basals and many novels are available at a nominal cost.

Contact **Anna Marie Farnish, CIRC, Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, MD 21218. (410) 516-0370.**

Developmental Funding: U.S. Department of Education.

PEP No. 88-06 (4/27/88)

City-As-School (CAS). An alternative program that combines academic learning with the world of work for high school students, including at-risk students.

Audience Validated by N.Y.S. and approved by NDN (U.S.D.E) for at-risk and gifted/talented adolescents in grades 9 through 12.

Description Features of City-As-School (CAS):

- An independent alternative high school which links students with hundreds of learning experiences throughout the community.
- Students spend up to 30-40 hours per week in learning experiences utilizing community resources of business, civic, cultural, social or political nature.
- Academic credit is granted for each learning experience successfully completed.
- Structured, student-centered Learning Experience Activity Packet (LEAP helps to identify and evaluate discrete areas of instruction in each resource.
- Students attend resources for one cycle (9 weeks) or two cycles and receive credit or no credit rather than letter or numerical grades.
- Specialized, small classes support activities at community resources.
- Weekly seminar groups serve as forum for discussions of guidance, academic and social issues.

Evidence of Effectiveness

- Improvement in attendance;
- Increase in course completion rate of students;
- Better attitude toward schooling, career, and adults; and
- Evidence derived from school records, pre- and posttest comparison of a control group and use of likert-scaled instruments.

Requirements Three days of inservice training sessions in curriculum development and initial and ongoing program implementation is provided by CAS trainers at participating site or CAS in New York.

Costs Follow-up consultations are provided free of charge as an integral part of program implementation. Program evaluation services are also available in the form of a multifaceted, guided self-evaluation which can be administered at the adopting or home site. The all inclusive fee is $3,000 (travel, lodging, trainer, materials).

Services All forms used to develop resources, publicity reports, pamphlets, catalogs, recruitment posters, evaluation instruments and administrative materials included.

Contact **William Weinstein, City-As-School, 16 Clarkson Street, New York, NY 10014. (212) 645-6121, (212) 691-7801, or FAX (212) 675-2858.**

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title IV-C and NYC Board of Education.

JDRP No. 82-13 **(6/10/82)**
Recertified **(3/11/93)**

Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program, The. A cross-age tutoring program designed to reduce dropout rates among middle school children who are limited-English-proficient and at risk of leaving school, for grades 7-8.

Audience Approved by PEP for students in grades 7-8.

Description The Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program is unique in that tutors are limited-English-proficient students at risk of dropping out of school. When placed in a responsible tutoring role and supported in their efforts, tutors gain significant social and economic benefits. The program has three levels that incorporate all the major features of the model—philosophy, instruction, and support. The philosophical base consists of tenets such as all students can learn; all students, parents and teachers have a right to participate fully in creating and maintaining excellent schools; excellence in schools contributes to individual and collective economic growth, stability and advancement; and commitment to educational excellence is created by including students, parents and teachers in setting goals, making decisions, monitoring progress, and evaluating outcomes. The instructional strategy incorporates five major components including classes for tutors; tutoring sessions; field trips; role-modeling; and student recognition. The support strategy involves curriculum, coordination, staff enrichment, family involvement, and evaluation activities.

In 1992, the Coca-Cola Valued Youth Program was recognized by the Secretary of Education as a model dropout prevention program, meeting the National Goal for Education 2 of increasing the high school graduation rate to at least 90%.

Evidence of Effectiveness Student tutors participating in the program demonstrate a significantly lower school dropout rate than the comparison group and national rates; achieve significantly higher reading grades than the comparison group; show significantly greater gains on the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale than comparison students; and make significantly greater gains on the Quality of School Life Scale than the comparison group.

Requirements The model can be implemented by existing school staff. Six implementation guides (for the program administrator, the secondary principal, the elementary principal, the teacher/coordinator, the evaluation liaison, and the elementary receiving teachers) are available. Materials also include a family liaison guide and workbooks for each tutor in the program. While the materials provide the basics for adopting the program, schools are encouraged to plan adjustments in implementation. Elements critical to the success of the program include weekly classes for tutors with a minimum of 30 sessions per school year, a minimum age and grade difference of four years between the tutor and tutee, provision of a stipend, a flexible curriculum based on students' tutoring and academic needs, and a program staff dedicated and committed to the program's success. A minimum of ten training and technical assistance days are required.

Costs Cost per student/user (based on 25 tutors and 75 tutees) ranges from $150-$250, including tutor stipends, recognition awards, staff training, technical assistance, and evaluation.

Services In addition to training, technical assistance, materials, and evaluation, follow-up consultation is available.

Contact Josie D. Supik, Intercultural Development Research Association, 5835 Callaghan Road, Suite 350, San Antonio, TX 78228. (210) 684-8180.

Developmental Funding: Coca-Cola and
USDE Office of Bilingual and Minority Languages Affairs.

PEP No. 91-23 (4/8/91)

COoperative Federation For Educational Experiences (COFFEE). A comprehensive dropout prevention/ reclamation program for adolescents with histories of academic failure, truancy, poor self-concept, family problems, and social misconduct.

Description COoperative Federation For Educational Experiences (COFFEE) is a regional, instructional, occupational training and counseling program for at-risk youth from seventeen school districts. The characteristics of this student population are as follows: histories of academic failure, truancy, poor self-concept, family problems, and social misconduct. The program integrates five components: an academic component—which provides relevant basic skills instruction based on an individualized education plan; an occupational component—which provides hands-on educational experiences in an adult-like work environment preparing students for the high-demand jobs of the 80's and 90's; a counseling component—which provides character building, occupational and emotional support utilizing existing state, regional, and local service organizations; a preemployment education component—designed to enhance the employability of at-risk students through classroom instruction and student internships; and a physical education component—which offers a program of recreational activities adapted to enable students to develop a sense of self-accomplishment and group cooperation. The occupational component includes training programs in the following areas: Computer Maintenance and Repair, Word Processing, Building and Grounds Maintenance, Horticulture/Agriculture, and Distributive Education.

Contact Michael Fields, NDN Coordinator, French River Education Center, P.O. Box 476, North Oxford, MA 01537. (508) 987-0219 or 987-0210. Sean Gilrein, Executive Director, Oxford High School Annex, Main Street, Oxford, MA 01540. (508) 987-2591 or 987-2463.

JDRP No. 82-25 (5/19/82)
Recertified (5/21/86)

Developmental Funding: Vocational Education

DeLaSalle Model. An individualized program of special services coupled with a core academic curriculum for students who have dropped out of grades 9-12 to help them improve their academic skills and complete their high school education.

Audience Approved by PEP for populations fitting the high school level (grades 9-12), with most students between the ages of 14 and 18. Students for whom the DeLaSalle Model is appropriate are those who have typically had poor or sporadic school attendance and low academic performance in their previous schooling.

Description DeLaSalle Education Center is a private not-for-profit agency which has served the greater Kansas City area since 1971. The goals of the fully accredited program are to increase school attendance, improve academic skills, and enhance self-esteem and educational attitudes in students who have dropped out of high school and have no other chance for completing an education.

DeLaSalle employs a variety of programming features and services within a comprehensive model to allow every youngster to be successful in his or her education. These include a supportive non-traditional school structure, a small student-teacher ratio, individualized learning, student contracting, intensive counseling, vocational skill training, and a diagnostic prescriptive teaching process.

The DeLaSalle Model provides a design for replication of educational strategies which reinforce the efforts called for by the National Goals for Education. Using the Model, any alternative school can develop an appropriate program within the framework of local needs and resources.

Evidence of Effectiveness Follow-up studies have shown that the DeLaSalle Model has enabled students to earn the high school diploma or GED certificate, and improve work skills and social adjustment. Improvements have been shown to be maintained long after program completion.

Requirements While DeLaSalle Education Center has developed its own facility apart from any traditional school, the Model it has developed could be incorporated into an existing school program or within a common campus. Minimally, the Model would require a separate wing or floor to accommodate its special focus. Size of faculty and staff would depend on enrollment. Beside the need for high-interest, low-skill level materials for classroom use, appropriate materials and space for vocational classes, and faculty training and inservice, there are no substantial differences in outlay between conventional programs and the Model program.

Costs Overall costs for implementation of the DeLaSalle Model are similar to costs in a public school system. Estimates for personnel and materials needed to serve 160 students: nine teaching positions, five support staff, three days of training annually, office space, classroom and vocational equipment, recordkeeping and work supplies, and testing materials.

Services Initial awareness materials are available at no cost. Awareness and training sessions are available with costs to be negotiated, either at the home site or adoption site. Interested administrators are invited to visit DeLaSalle Education Center at any time. Adoption of the Model includes consultation and evaluation support for the first year.

Contact Regina Hansen, DeLaSalle Education Center, 3740 Forest, Kansas City, MO 64109-3200. (816) 561-3312, FAX (816) 561-6106.

Developmental Funding: Mix of private and public funding (local and federal). PEP No. 88-20 (7/21/89)

Diversified Educational Experiences Program (DEEP). A new method of organizing and managing an academic classroom, for grades 9-12.

Description The major goal of the Diversified Educational Experiences Program (DEEP) is to develop an instructional process for secondary school classrooms that allows instructors to create an academic environment emphasizing success for every learner while decreasing learner hostility to educational institutions.

DEEP offers students and instructors a method of organizing and managing an academic classroom that differs from the usual classroom model. Students in the DEEP classroom identify needs, formulate objectives, develop tasks based upon these objectives, present group and individual projects based upon fulfillment of objectives, receive teacher debriefing following presentation of the projects, and participate in their own evaluations. DEEP offers learners in academic subjects alternative ways to create, gather, develop and display information. Extensive use is made of electronic and nonelectronic media. The role of the teacher is that of advisor, consultant, and learning-systems manager. The classroom is a workshop where students work cooperatively to complete tasks. Community resources are utilized.

The DEEP classroom is highly structured, but the structure is not the same as in the typical academic classroom. Teachers who demonstrate the ability and desire to change their methods of instruction are trained in the use of these new management techniques. They must be willing to teach one or more DEEP classes along with their regular classes. The teachers are trained as learning facilitators, and the conflict-management process is based on human relations and peer group interaction as well as on teacher-student interaction. Once the training has been accomplished, students can be enrolled in the program as part of the normal scheduling procedure. The program provides management charts and materials along with evaluation procedures.

Contact J. Connett, Director, DEEP, KEDDS/Link, 428 Building, Room 204, 428 South Broadway, Wichita, KS 67202. (316) 833-4611, FAX (316) 833-4612.

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title III. JDRP No. 76-82 (6/23/76)

Early Recognition Intervention Network (ERIN). A curriculum/ assessment program for teachers, coordinators, and parents to assist young children with special needs in regular and special education settings. Approved by JDRP for children ages 3-7 with mild to severe disabilities in mainstream or special settings, programs for regular and special teachers, program coordinators, and parents.

Description The Early Recognition Intervention Network (ERIN) system is used in both special preschool classroom/home programs serving children with moderate to severe special needs and in regular early childhood (nursery, Head Start, day care) and primary (K-1) programs serving mainstreamed mild to moderate special needs children integrated with their peers. When adopting, each teacher implements a program of observation and curriculum modification for children with special needs. A local coordinator is trained to take over local training and monitoring of the program. The ERIN training program for adults (special or regular teachers and coordinators) provides the equivalent of three to six college credits through attendance at a 5-day Institute and on-site consultation by ERIN staff. A coordinated parent program for both special and mainstream children is optional. The teaching adult makes materials and organizes his/her own learning environment to facilitate participation (social-emotional-affective), body awareness and control, visual-perceptual-motor, and language skills. Depending on the age of the child, these are organized into self-help, developmental concept, and academic readiness content areas. Initially, the curriculum approach focuses on general classroom/ home modifications of the physical space and daily time units, learning materials and their organization into learning sequences, the grouping of children, and teacher cuing/monitoring. This is followed by the teaching of specific skills to subgroups and/or individual children by the teacher, parent, or volunteer, with much greater intensity in specialized programs. The child's Individual Education Program is implemented in large and small groups and individually.

Contact **Peter and Marian Hainsworth, Co-Directors, ERIN, Inc., 376 Bridge Street, Dedham, MA 02026. (617) 329-5529.**

JDRP No. 78-186 (7/13/78)
Recertified (12/84)

Developmental Funding: USOE BEH.

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Elsmere Project. A basic skills vocational program for the trainable mentally disabled population, ages 5-21.

Description The Elsmere Project addresses Goal 3 of the National Goals for Education by meeting the individual needs of TMH students by providing individualized scheduling of instruction in six essential areas: functional academics, socialization, family life, independent living, prevocation, and vocation. For each area, the curriculum has a double orientation. First, the program emphasizes the acquisition of self-sufficiency to the highest degree possible. The project prepares students to function in the community, to work, travel, shop, enjoy leisure time and relate to others. Second, vocational skills are presented through these learning areas. Thus, skills and attitudes necessary for engaging in work are emphasized in all learning areas. Each student is exposed to a simulated work atmosphere. Students are involved in rudimentary training and work activities such as assembling, packaging and collating. Students participate in a vocational training program which reflects community employment needs. On-the-job training is provided for students in the final stages of the training program. The Glassboro Trainable Assessment Profile (G-TAP), assists the teacher in placing students at the correct functioning level in each of the life skill areas. It is also a useful tool to measure yearly growth and assist the child study team in developing objectives for the Individual Educational Plan (IEP). Because area business leaders are potential employers of TMH citizens, community involvement is an integral part of the project. On-the-job training and student job placement occur through community involvement. Advisory groups and service organizations assist the project by providing information on the skills necessary to prepare students for particular jobs. Parent interest and participation is another component in the success of the Elsmere Project. Parents are provided the background required to perform activities at home that reinforce vocational skills taught at school.

Contact **Monika Steinberg, Project Manager, Elsmere Project, Educational Information and Resource Center (EIRC), 606 Delsea Drive, Sewell, NJ 08080. (609) 582-7000, FAX (609) 583-4206.**

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Titles III and IV-C. JDRP No. 79-23 (5/17/79)

Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI). A program designed to identify critical teacher behaviors essential in preventing reading failure of students in grades 1-10. Inservice education for teachers based on the research findings on reading and other language arts.

Audience Approved by JDRP for students of all abilities, grades 1-10.

Description Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction (ECRI)'s purpose is to teach teachers so they can use effective teaching strategies that prevent failure. These strategies include: eliciting accurate and rapid responses during instruction, establishing high levels of mastery, maintaining on-task behavior, integrating the teaching of language skills, using effective management and monitoring systems, varying schedules and classes so students can invest the time and energy needed to learn, and supervising students' hands-on activities and practice. Techniques are incorporated into reading, spelling, grammar, dictation, creative writing, and penmanship instruction, and are extremely effective in content instruction such as science and social studies.

Students' attention is sustained with the momentum of the teacher directives during instruction and reinforcement offered during practice time. Overt responses appeal to all preferred modalities of learning. Instruction is provided by ECRI so teachers can: utilize critical teacher behaviors identified through research, develop a management system for mastery and individualization, and teach reading and language skills effectively.

Teachers learn to teach word recognition, literal, interpretative, critical and creative comprehension, study skills, literature, and composition as they use basal readers, literature series, novels, content books.

Students demonstrate mastery through their participation in small-group discussions, writing, locating, organizing, and evaluating information.

ECRI students demonstrate competency in their ability to reason, solve problems, apply knowledge, read, write, and communicate (Goal 3). ECRI students remain in school longer because of their success in school and their higher academic scores (Goal 2).

Evidence of Effectiveness Regular education ECRI students demonstrate significantly greater gains ($p<.01$) on the reading subscales of standardized achievement tests than (1) comparison group students receiving their regular reading instruction and (2) expectancies derived from national normative data.

Special needs ECRI students (Chapter I, bilingual, remedial) and special education students (learning disabled) demonstrate significantly ($p<.01$) greater than expected gains (derived from national normative data) on the Total Reading composite scales of standardized achievement tests.

Requirements A 3-5 day preparatory seminar with one ECRI staff person for 35-40 trainees is desirable. The program includes lecture and practice sessions, preparation of materials for classroom use, and teaching students in a simulated setting. Following this, periodic visits by ECRI staff to trainees' classrooms to demonstrate, model, and monitor are encouraged. The length of time to replicate the ECRI model varies. Existing district reading materials may be used. Supplies for teachers and pupils are those usually found in schools. ECRI has 16 self-instructional teacher texts that are used by teachers during inservice. No special staffing or facilities are required to implement ECRI.

Costs Some costs (honorarium, travel, expenses) can be negotiated through the NDN grant. Honorarium is $415/day. Required teacher texts are $174/teacher.

Services Awareness materials are available at no cost. Visitors are welcome by appointment at the program site and additional sites in other states. Program staff are available to attend out-of-state awareness meetings at no cost. Teacher of Teachers Conferences are held in August and September. Training, implementation, and follow-up services are available at the adopter site (costs to be negotiated) and at the program site.

Contact **Ethna R. Reid, Reid Foundation, 3310 South 2700 East, Salt Lake City, UT 84109. (801) 486-5083 or 278-2334.**

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title III Private Sources.

JDRP No. 74-48 (5/23/74)
Recertified (2/13/90)

Graduation, Reality, And Dual-Role Skills (GRADS). A program to keep pregnant and parenting teens in school, with additional goals of encouraging good health care practices and helping young parents set occupational goals, for grades 7-12.

Audience Approved by PEP for all pregnant and parenting teens, male and female, in grades 7-12 from city, exempted village, local, and joint vocational school districts in urban, suburban, and rural communities.

Description Graduation, Reality, And Dual-Role Skills (GRADS) is a vocational home economics instructional and intervention program. Regular GRADS classes are supplemented with seminars and individual projects. Teacher trained in the program serve one school or travel among three or four. The **instructional component** focuses on use of the 1300$^+$ page teacher-written *Adolescent Parent Resource Guide*, which provides the practical problems, concepts, and strategies which guide the development of skills in teenage parents. The guide discusses communication and skills necessary for effective problem solving in the teen family. It recognizes the stresses affecting pregnant teens, focusing on management skills required for teen family wellness. Central themes of the guide and the curriculum (which emphasizes practical problem solving) are the perennial and practical problems of the adolescent parent at home, school, and work; and the development of knowledge and skills to solve problems in real life, including identifying alternatives, examining consequences, considering personal goals and values, scrutinizing decisions, and taking morally defensible actions. The four content areas include positive self, pregnancy, parenting, and economic independence. Audio visuals, supplemental texts, and other materials are also part of the program. The **advisory committee component** and **home and community outreach component** seek to build strong relationships with students through home visits and/or contacts with family. Collaboration and agency linkages are necessary for addressing the barriers teen parents face to being able to remain in school until graduation. The **evaluation/research component** seeks to identify and report student and program outcomes. All programs report outcomes, and a state and national report is published annually.

Evidence of Effectiveness Pregnant and parenting teens enrolled in the program are more likely to remain in school until graduation during pregnancy and after childbirth; they have also significantly increased their knowledge of positive parenting practices as measured by pre- and posttest instruments. Pregnant mothers are also more likely to deliver healthy babies than teens not enrolled in the program.

Requirements A vocationally certified consumer homemaking teacher must secure the resource guide and attend a two-day inservice training. Needed equipment includes student tables and chairs, a teacher desk, file cabinets, lockable storage, audiovisual equipment, and a telephone for private conversation available at all times.

Costs Awareness presentation (one to two hours) costs consist of travel expenses for the presenter. Training (two days) costs consist of travel expenses for the presenter, and the purchase price of the *Adolescent Parent Resource Guide*, which must be obtained for each teacher or school team, at a cost of $78. Cost sharing may be requested for the *GRADS Implementation Notebook* (the training materials).

Services In addition to training and materials, the program provides updates, technical assistance, and processes for monitoring and evaluation of the program's effectiveness. Awareness materials are available at no cost.

Contact **Sharon G. Herold or William Hull, Ohio Department of Education, Division of Vocational and Career Education, Room 909, 65 South Front Street, Columbus, OH 43266-0308. (614) 466-3046.**

Developmental Funding: Comprehensive Employment Training and Administration.

PEP No. 90-08 **(2/9/90)**

Help One Student To Succeed (HOSTS) Math. A diagnostic/prescriptive/individualized approach designed for at-risk students. Approved by JDRP for remedial math instruction for elementary and junior high students.

Description Help One Student To Succeed (HOSTS) Math is a self-contained program that includes a diagnostic/prescriptive component which accurately places students in a precise sequence of math skills. Each youngster moves from one skill to the next as mastery is demonstrated. Teachers are provided with lesson plans and activities for each skill which are designed to build a conceptual understanding before proceeding to the symbolic level of drill and practice. Material is offered in manageable segments with attainable goals for students. This allows students to feel successful in math achievement. HOSTS Math is compatible with all major math basal series.

Complete lesson plans, activities manuals, student worksheets, tests, and answer sheets are provided for paper and pencil work covering 18 strands. Fifteen computer disks, designed for the Apple II series computer, are included for drill and practice as well as testing, along with a record-keeping component for class management. The program encourages the use of manipulatives for each objective to provide the instructor with several options to encourage mental math, problem solving, and development of higher order thinking skills.

HOSTS Math has been designed to offer several options to accommodate various learning styles and provide a fun-to-learn atmosphere for instructors and students.

Contact **William E. Gibbons, Chairman, 8000 N.E. Parkway Drive, Suite 201, Vancouver, WA 98662-6459. (206) 260-1995.**

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA IV-C and private.

JDRP No 82-8 (4/9/82)

Help One Student To Succeed (HOSTS) Reading. A diagnostic/prescriptive/tutorial instructional delivery system. Approved by JDRP for "at risk" students in grades 2-6. This program has also been used in other settings including K-12 and Adult Education.

Description Help One Student To Succeed (HOSTS) Reading is designed to diagnose each student to determine his/her needs and prescribe an individual educational program to fit the learning style of each youngster. HOSTS learning objectives are compatible with all major reading basals. HOSTS has compiled a computerized database of over 4,000 titles of high-quality resource materials cross-referenced to learning objectives and student learning styles, and indexed for instruction. Accessing the database allows the teacher several options for preparing individualized lesson plans. A holistic approach includes vocabulary, skill study, reading and writing to best fulfill the needs of each student.

The HOSTS concept utilizes one-on-one tutorials with community volunteers, cross-age and peer tutors providing personalized instruction two hours or more each week. Parents, citizens, business people and civic organization members volunteer as tutors (over 60,000 nationally). HOSTS provides an effective strategy for recruiting and training mentor/tutors. HOSTS Reading has been used very successfully in pull-out, small-group instruction and as a classroom supplement. Annual data collected from over 400 sites indicates consistent NCE gains in double digits with a high degree of retention. HOSTS Reading has been awarded the Educational Pacesetter Award by the President's National Advisory Council on Supplemental Centers and Services; the National Council of Teachers of English "Center of Excellence" award; the California "Golden Bell" award; the Texas "Reach" award; and several other awards.

Contact William E. Gibbons, Chairman, 8000 N.E. Parkway Drive, Vancouver, WA 98662-6459. (206) 260-1995.

JDRP No. 75-6 (1/15/75)
Recertified (11/84)

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Titles I, II, III, private and foundation

High/Scope K-3 Curriculum. A comprehensive method for organizing and managing classroom environments and instructional activities to help at-risk students improve their school achievement and literacy skills by giving them opportunities to initiate and engage in learning activities that contribute to their cognitive, social, and physical development.

Audience Approved by PEP for students in grades K-3 and their families.

Description The High/Scope K-3 Curriculum views children as active learners who learn best when they themselves plan, carry out, and reflect upon activities. Teaching staff observe, support, and extend children's activities by maintaining a daily routine that permits children to learn actively and construct their own knowledge; arranging instructional activity centers in the classroom to provide learning experiences in math, language, science, art, social studies, movement, and music that match children's needs and address appropriate content, skills, and concepts in these areas; joining in the children's activities, asking questions that extend children's plans, and helping them think; organizing daily small-group instructional workshops involving concepts and skills in all of the content areas; and engaging children in key child development experiences that help them learn to make choices and solve problems. Other features of the program include a child observation assessment technique, an emphasis on parent involvement, and a nationwide training network.

Evidence of Effectiveness At-risk students in classrooms utilizing the High/Scope K-3 Curriculum score significantly higher on overall achievement and subtests in reading, language, math, science, and social studies on standardized achievement tests than comparison students in classrooms with a traditional K-3 curriculum.

Requirements No special equipment or materials are required beyond the computers and developmentally appropriate manipulative and print materials that should be present in all good K-3 classrooms. However, classrooms need to be rearranged into activity areas. Training is open to administrators and teaching and caregiving staff working with children five to nine years old in public and private elementary schools and day care centers and homes. Several training options are available for teacher training through High/Scope.

Costs The cost for two-day workshop activities is $125/person for groups of 40 or more. Handout materials are included in this fee. Services on a consulting or contractual basis are available according to local needs. Consulting fees and travel expenses are negotiated on an individual basis. Week-long institutes can also be scheduled for groups of 20 or more participants. Institute fees are $400/person plus travel costs for High/Scope staff. Customized implementation plans include training for up to three years with costs ranging from $28,500 to $65,000 depending upon location, group size, and duration of the training activities. Videotapes (five total) are recommended for each program at a cost of $450. Printed teacher curriculum guides and supporting materials are required for each classroom, at a cost of $230.

Services In addition to training and materials, follow-up consultation is available.

Contact A. Clay Shouse, Director, Development and Services, High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, 600 North River Street, Ypsilanti, MI 48198. (313) 485-2000, FAX (313) 485-0704.

Developmental Funding: U.S. Department of Education, Follow Through Program, state, and other.

PEP No. 92-8 (3/92)

Intercept, Project. A positive program for intervention and remedy of students at-risk of suspension, truancy, dropout, academic failure, and behavior problems. Approved by JDRP for students in grades 9-12 who are considered high risk due to chronic academic failure, disruptive behavior, truancy, suspension, and dropout. Also used successfully for students in grades 4 through 8.

Description The basic premise of Project Intercept training is to restructure a school's teaching philosophies and to provide more effective techniques to deal with the at-risk student. The Intercept program is highly individualized and goals for each individual school are developed in concert with the participants of the project. Teachers, counselors, and administrators are trained as a team to approach all problems that affect at-risk students.

Project Intercept is a two-part program: one-half theoretical, one-half process. The program consists of a one-week training by Intercept master trainers followed by week-long visits throughout the year for on-line critiquing and demonstration teaching. One of the goals is to develop turnkey trainers for maintenance of the program at the original training site with possible expansion of the program to other schools in the system.

Contact James E. Loan, M.A., Project Intercept, 1101 South Race Street, Denver, CO 80210. (303) 777-5870.

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title-IVC. JDRP No. 81-50 (1/20/82)

On The Way to SUCCESS in Reading and Writing with Early Prevention of School Failure (EPSF).

A program designed as a follow-up program to prevent school failure by identifying the developmental level, learning styles, and special needs of K-2 children who need to develop preacademic learning skills.

Audience Approved by PEP for children in first grade or after kindergarten.

Description On the Way to SUCCESS in Reading and Writing with Early Prevention of School Failure (EPSF) is a program designed to promote success in beginning reading and writing for identified at-risk children by using developmentally appropriate methods and resource materials. Portfolios to help children become self-directed learners in reading and writing are a part of the program assessment. The instructional program and curriculum resources supplement the regular classroom literature-based reading and writing program.

On the Way to SUCCESS students with similar identified needs receive direct instruction daily for 20 to 30 minutes. In addition, the students are involved in the total group literature activities, higher process thinking skill activities, and integrated math and science activities. Parent involvement strategies and resources play an important part in both programs.

Fifty-two developmentally sequenced learning objectives form the basis for aligning teaching strategies and resources with the way children learn. The classroom reflects an age-appropriate learning environment based on each child's identified developmental level in language, auditory, visual, and motor areas.

Evidence of Effectiveness Program evaluators demonstrated that, as a result of their participation in EPSF in kindergarten (1985-86) and On the Way to SUCCESS in first grade (1986-87), students at-risk of academic success in kindergarten and first grade could not be distinguished from their typical or average second grade peers on the basis of scores from tests administered in 1988. The robust effects of the program were demonstrated by the statistically significant and educationally meaningful gains of a demographically diverse group of students from 11 districts in nine states.

Requirements The SUCCESS in Reading and Writing program requires the first grade teacher and/or readiness teacher to participate in a one-day training program.

Costs On the Way to SUCCESS costs are estimated at $145 per classroom for the curriculum kit, which includes a training manual, over 150 curriculum activity cards, a 155-page guide of activities for literature-based reading and writing, two literature folders with creative and critical thinking skill activities, *Guidelines for Child's Developmental Progress Notebook*, and assessment activities notebook.

Services The program will provide awareness materials and information at no cost. Interested educators are welcome to visit adopter demonstration sites. Awareness sessions and training are provided at the adopter site or a central location (costs to be negotiated). State consortium meetings and leadership conferences are conducted several times during the year.

Contact **Luceille Werner, National Director, Peotone School District 207U, 114 North Second Street, P.O. Box 956, Peotone, IL 60468. (708) 258-3478 or (800) 933-3478, FAX (708) 258-3484.**

Developmental Funding: USDE ESEA Title III (EPSF);
USDE ESEA Title I (Migrant), USDE (SUCCESS).

PEP No. 90-17 (6/11/90)

Reading and Content-area Resource Center (ReCaRe). A secondary developmental reading and study skills program designed to "recare" about the reading and study skills of all ability-level students. Approved for students in grades 10-12.

Description Reading and Content-area Resource Center (ReCaRe) is a secondary reading and study skills program which serves the reading and study skill needs of all ability students. It is not a remedial program. The instructional program is a one-semester course based on an individual educational plan that provides for group instruction one day a week and individualized instruction during the remaining four days. Students in the program rotate through four skill areas—reading comprehension, vocabulary, reading rate, and study skills. Based on the results of diagnostic tests and a student statement of need, an individual educational plan is developed for each student. Students are responsible for developing a more extended vocabulary, increasing reading rate, completing appropriate study skills units, and developing comprehension skill. Students are assigned materials relevant to their needs and interests at appropriate reading levels, thereby providing maximum opportunity for success. Throughout the semester, students record and evaluate their work daily and are evaluated by the teacher each week both orally and by a point system. The main objective is to help all students become efficient, independent learners prior to leaving the secondary school. ReCaRe's study skills units include time management, SQ3R study method, note-taking skills, test-taking skills, library and research skills, and a summary unit which integrates all of the study skills which students have practiced in the semester course. A wide variety of commercially available and program-produced study skills and management materials are used by students. All training participants need a copy of the replication training manual, an 800-page notebook, which sells for $65 and includes all of the program-produced materials. Teacher editions and student editions of the study skills units are part of this manual.

Contact **Patricia S. Olson, Director, West St. Paul Community Center, Room D101, 1037 Bidwell, West St. Paul, MN 55118. (612) 451-0489 or 898-3002, FAX (612) 435-7384 (press * 0 when answered).**

Developmental Funding: USEO ESEA Title IV-C JDRP No. 82-22R (2/25/83)

Reading Recovery. A supplementary, one-to-one intervention program for the least able readers in the first grade to help them acquire and use fundamental reading and comprehension skills.

Audience The least able readers in first grade as determined by a comprehensive battery of individually administered diagnostic instruments.

Description Reading Recovery reduces reading failure through early intervention and helps children become independent readers. The goal is to bring the children to the average of their class or school by providing individually tailored 30-minute lessons. Reading Recovery supplements the regular reading program in a classroom. The specially trained teacher and child work together daily for one half hour, in which the child is involved in reading and writing experiences. Techniques include the reading of many "little" books to build confidence, daily writing, the re-reading of favorite books, and learning to hear sounds in words by writing simple stories. Reading Recovery focuses on providing opportunities for children to make their own links between reading and writing—and discover meaning. The integrated reading and writing lessons are tailored to build on what the child already knows while strengthening a self-improving system which leads to continued growth. The elements of the lesson are the same for each child, although the content differs with each child.

Evidence of Effectiveness First grade children improved their reading and writing ability after an average of 16.4 weeks, with 86% of the children reaching average levels of achievement for their class in reading. Replications across several thousand sites verify the consistency of the results. Growth in reading and writing is evidenced by statistically significant scores relative to an equivalent control group using a variety of writing and reading test elements. In addition, follow-up studies indicate that the majority of children released from the program continue to make progress and read with the average of their class through the second, third, and fourth grades without additional help.

Requirements For effective implementation, school systems should release one or two experienced individuals to attend a one year teacher-leader training program at a designated university. They will learn procedures for implementation, evaluation, and administration of the Reading Recovery program.

The teacher-leaders, upon returning to their home site, train other teachers in the Reading Recovery model. Release time for trained teacher-leaders and teachers in training (including arrangements for a weekly 2 1/2-hour class after school hours) is required.

Services In addition to negotiable costs for release time for teachers, installation of the one-way glass at the training site costs about $3,000, and books and materials cost about $2,000.

Awareness materials are available at no cost. Program staff are available for awareness presentations and training with all costs negotiable.

Contact **Dr. Carol A. Lyons, Gay Su Pinnell, or Dr. Diane E. DeFord, Reading Recovery Program, The Ohio State University, 200 Ramseyer Hall, 29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, OH 43210. (614) 292-7807.**

Developmental Funding: State of Ohio, Columbus Public Schools
National Council of Teachers of English, and private foundations.

PEP No. 87-11 (4/20/87)

Success Understanding Mathematics (SUM). An elementary mathematics program which uses manipulatives and questioning techniques to develop understanding.

Description Although Success Understanding Mathematics (SUM) was designed to improve achievement of Chapter 1 children, the teaching methods and materials are appropriate for students of all ability levels. The methods are based on research about the ways children learn, matching those recommended by the NCTM Standards. Characteristics include:

- A problem-solving approach
- Emphasis on reasoning, number sense, and operation sense
- Use of manipulatives by students to make connections between math concepts, language, and written symbols
- Role of students—investigate, guess, check, reason, discuss
- Role of teacher—guide student learning by listening and questioning

Program Components: Teaching methods, management materials (objectives, tests, and record-keeping materials), and ongoing support for teachers (inservice and parent materials). **Audience:** The program may be implemented in greades 1-6 by a teacher, school supplementary program, or an entire school district. It may be used with any textbook. **Requirements:** One or two days of training is required. Follow-up implementation training is advised. **Services:** Awareness materials are available at no cost. Program staff are available to attend awareness meetings and to conduct training workshops (costs to be negotiated). Program publications are furnished to adopters at cost.

Contact **Kathleen Bullington, Director, Success Understanding Mathematics, Des Moines Public Schools, 1800 Grand Avenue, Room 343, Des Moines, IA 50309. (515) 242-7860, FAX (515) 242-7550.**

JDRP No. 80-55 (2/11/81)
Recertified (1/85)

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title I.

Systematic Instructional Management Strategies (SIMS). A program using management strategies and a structured, sequenced curriculum to help teachers plan appropriate instructional programs for disabled readers. Approved by JDRP for disabled readers grades 1-12 needing basic coding skills, and for learning disabilities teachers serving that population. This program has also been used in other settings with special education groups.

Description A discrepancy model for solving performance problems provides the framework for the Systematic Instructional Management Strategies (SIMS) curriculum. The SIMS curriculum consists of a hierarchical sequence of 53 objectives needed to acquire the basic coding skills of reading and spelling. The curriculum contains word and sentence lists for each of the 53 objectives to monitor the accuracy of skill acquisition for each individual child. Additional word lists for each objective are designed to monitor the proficiency with which a student decodes words of a particular pattern. There are four stories for each of the 53 objectives. Written language worksheets with controlled reading levels matching the word list level provide activities simultaneously developing the student's writing skills. Comprehension questions and worksheets for Scanning Stories are used to develop independent study skills. SIMS teachers are trained to use data decision rules to plan appropriate instructional interventions.

Contact **Lyle A. Baker, Director, Grants and Compliance, Minneapolis Public Schools, 807 N.E. Broadway, Minneapolis, MN 55413. (612) 627-2190.**

Developmental Funding: USOE BEH Title VI-G.

JDRP No. 79-18 (5/15/79)

Systematic Teaching And Measuring Mathematics (STAMM). A comprehensive outcome-based mathematics program resulting in high student achievement. Approved by JDRP for students of all abilities, grades K-8.

Description Systematic Teaching And Measuring Mathematics (STAMM) presents an elementary mathematics program that covers the curricula and the means necessary to assist in delivering NCTM's "Standards." Teachers can select from a variety of learning activities to provide for the needs of their students through a variety of concrete manipulatives, practice, problem solving, and enrichment strategies. STAMM provides students with varied opportunities to develop underlying concepts, and can be used in a variety of teaching styles (large group, cooperative grouping, departmentalization, individualized or labs). STAMM's flexible design fits into schools of all sizes and classroom structures. STAMM includes a management system which is organized around carefully designed learner outcomes. Student growth is monitored through postassessment strategies. Specifically, the program is delivered through the following STAMM materials: **Teacher Manual** (TM) - a resource book of *activity*-oriented ideas to assist the teacher in delivering the learner outcomes. **Student Booklet** - a set of student materials from which a teacher selects activities as needed to enhance development and practice of the learner outcomes by the students *after* they have received initial instruction. **Student Assessment Booklet** - criterion-referenced assessments to provide information about the student's progress on the learner outcomes utilizing alternative testing strategies.

These STAMM resource materials have been created to complement the existing textbooks, manipulative materials, and teacher-made resources.

Contact **Larry Bradsby, Director, STAMM, Jefferson County Schools, 1725 South Wright Street, Lakewood, CO 80228. (303) 763-5650.**

Developmental Funding: USOE ESEA Title III.

JDRP No. 76-87 (6/23/76)
Recertified (12/84)

Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI): Mathematics. Developed by R.E. Slavin and colleagues and approved by the JDRP for grades 3-6.

Description Team Accelerated Instruction (TAI): Mathematics is a program that helps teachers to meet the diversity of student needs within the math class. It combines quality interactive instruction with the power of cooperative learning to accelerate the achievement of all students, maximize teaching and learning time, enhance motivation and attitudes toward math, and improve students' social interaction.

Students receive concept instructions from the teacher in small homogeneous teaching groups. They then practice the skills learned in 4-5 member heterogeneous learning teams at their own pace on materials appropriate to their specific needs.

TAI: Mathematics instruction is organized into 13 paperbound nonconsumable student books. Each classroom set of books contains a range from advanced addition to pre-algebra.

The program also includes comprehensive teacher materials which make it easy for teachers to plan, teach, and manage the math program effectively.

TAI has proven effective in five field experiments which involved random assignment of classes to TAI or control treatments. Differences between TAI and control classes in grade equivalent gains on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills Mathematics Computations had a median ratio of more than two to one.

Awareness materials are available at no cost. Training is one to two days; follow-up advisable (costs to be negotiated).

Contact **Barbara M. Luebbe, Director, TAI: Mathematics, Center for Social Organization of Schools, The Johns Hopkins University, 3505 North Charles Street, Baltimore, MD 21218. (410) 516-0370.**

Developmental Funding: NIE and OSE. JDRP No. 84-5 (3/23/84)

Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems

Selecting a solution to an educational problem requires an accurate understanding of the current conditions and the ultimate fit of that solution with the overall goals for school improvement in the district or school building. **A clear definition** and thorough exploration of the problem is essential to selection of an appropriate solution. Attractive or innovative solutions, by themselves, may not address persistent and underlying dilemmas. By merely treating symptoms, the more fundamental questions of "who do we really need to serve here?" and "what do we really need to do for this population?" may go unanswered.

A second step in selecting a solution is **agreement on a set of criteria** for choosing from among possible alternatives. Few districts or schools do this until they have navigated the universe, become bewildered or lost, or grown frustrated by a lack of action while the search for the elusive, perfect, and undiscovered program drags on.

Identifying local resources, predispositions and constraints early in the effort can help save time and facilitate decisionmaking. Sharing the summaries of these findings with outside resources, such as information brokers in helping agencies, institutions, and professional associations can expedite the search for programs or practices to meet the criteria that have been established. Ultimately, choices will be easier to make because the quality and quantity of information gathered along the way has improved. At this point, **how decisions are made** can become as important as **what** choices are made.

Finally, **solutions must be communicated and described** in specific, measurable, observable, and relevant ways. Very careful **definition of the new practices or processes** can help to prevent the negative impact of implementing incomplete solutions, misinterpreted solutions, half-hearted compliance, and general sense of uninvolvement.

Consider which of the following symptoms characterize your marginal students and which solutions might be feasible in your school or district.

SYMPTOMS

poor attendance
chronic truancy
not achieving to ability
second language or dialect
too many suspensions
too many discipline referrals
too much vandalism
theft
no respect for personal property
use of drugs and alcohol
non-productive social behavior
poor vocabulary
poor reading comprehension
poor oral reading
poor listening comprehension
poor oral communication
poor mathematics skills
poor speech
poor conflict resolution
provokes fights

SOLUTIONS

classroom management system
team teaching
mastery learning
instructional aides
job training
teacher assistance teams
screening / testing
small class size
cooperative group learning
residential learning
group counseling
remedial instruction
experiential learning
tutorial programs
summer education
poor oral communication
Saturday class
time out rooms
microcomputer-based instruction
learning labs

SYMPTOMS

- uses foul and obscene language
- poor participation in class
- does not do homework
- does not join extracurricular activity
- drops out of school
- shows up but tunes out
- lacks confidence
- lacks self control
- gives up easily
- poor motor skills
- low teacher satisfaction

SOLUTIONS

- critical thinking
- behavioral objectives
- individualized instruction
- direct instruction
- teacher accountability
- psychological counseling
- homework hotlines
- teacher as advisor program
- parent involvement program
- career information
- rotating teachers
- interdisciplinary curriculum
- rotating classes
- college counseling
- drill and practice
- motivation strategies
- public awareness programs
- school-operated day care programs
- home-school communications

Adapted by Fleming, D. S. and based on the work of Loucks-Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement*, pp. 17-36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

A Checklist of Major Goals for Marginal Learner Programs

☐ Improved learning and motivation
☐ Reduced dropout rates
☐ Reduced suspension rates
☐ Reduced disciplinary referrals
☐ Increased student attendance
☐ Improved self–confidence and self–esteem
☐ Improved use of organizational strategies, study skills, and learning strategies
☐ Development of effective work habits and other employability skills
☐ Increased student participation in school and community activities
☐ Increased academic and behavior standards
☐ Updated and upgraded curricular offerings
☐ Adapted and varied instructional techniques and strategies to meet learner needs and learning styles
☐ Increased community and family participation in district and school site activities
☐ Increased number of awards and recognition achieved by students, teachers, and/or the school

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Adapted from Eberhard, R. G. (1987). *Programs That Work for At–Risk Youth.* Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education.

A Checklist of Features for Comparing Marginal Learner Programs

☐ Clarity of goals and objectives

- learner goals
- achievement outcomes desired
- learner needs addressed

☐ Evidence to support program claims

- student achievement gains
- retention rates
- behavioral change

☐ Ease of adaption or adoption by district or school sites

- complexity—how much change in structure, curriculum, teaching methods
- compatibility—how much like present programs, attitudes, and belief systems
- continuity—how much is based upon what happens before and after for students

☐ Materials provided by the program

- for students
- for teachers
- for program managers / administrators

☐ Academic merit

- development of academic skills
- potential for counseling / socialization
- opportunity for occupational / vocational instruction
- freedom from race and sex-role stereotyping

☐ Connection of youth to school and learning

- improved daily attendance
- improved graduation rate

☐ Availability of ongoing assistance

- initial training for staff
- telephone assistance
- qualified consultants to help implement onsite
- monitoring program and evaluation requirements

☐ Implementation requirements clear

- training recommended for staff
- facilities required
- personnel needed
- equipment purchases
- materials expended
- supplemental materials suggested
- management and evaluation systems

☐ Cost effectiveness

- within range of other school or district programs

Adapted from Eberhard, R. G. (1987). *Programs That Work for At-Risk Youth.* Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education; & Loucks-Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement,* pp. 17-36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners

The term "school improvement" can be interpreted very differently by various people representing distinct role groups or experiences. Some people equate school improvement with districtwide or school-building based committees engaged in long meetings and self-analysis, attempting to reach consensus on goals and objectives that can get written into action plans for others to follow. Others picture school improvement as small groups of teachers and other district staff operating on a special budget and authorized to make grade-level or department-wide changes. Still others view school improvement as a districtwide or building level mandate focusing on some aspect of curriculum or instruction and issued as a prerogative of central leadership. Any of these views might be correct. School improvement has been defined, quite broadly, as, "The pursuit of any goal that benefits students and that has as a focus the classroom and school building."[1] School improvement for marginal learners, then, might mean:

- Modifying an elementary school mathematics program to provide more opportunity for guided practice during classroom instruction.
- Developing and implementing districtwide screening and testing procedures to identify at-risk youth.
- Adopting a teacher assistance team approach to help individual classroom teachers plan instructional strategies in the regular classroom.
- Increasing enrollments of females and minorities in upper level mathematics and science courses.
- Applying Gary Wehlage's characteristics of effective marginal learner programs in designing an alternative school program for the district.

There can also be different perspectives on what constitutes a legitimate and effective school improvement effort. One set of assumptions, based on research and experience, includes the following:

1. School improvement activities must address persistent problems and increase the capacity of the organization to deal effectively with future ones.
2. School improvement cannot happen unless something observably different occurs between teachers and students.
3. School improvement efforts are more likely to have lasting effects when the solutions to problems are defined as classroom practices so that teachers have clear images of what desired practices look like and what is expected of them.

Do We Make It Ourselves or Import It?

An important question asked by a district or school building embarking on a school improvement effort is, "What is the best way to get there?" The "make it/buy it" decision may appear too simplistic, but sooner or later a committee of one or a committee of ten must contend with this issue. For some school problems, there are programs or practices that have been developed somewhere else and that have been used successfully by teachers and students in a number of schools. Research has shown that **teachers can and do use practices developed by others** when those practices can be described clearly, and when they have evaluation data to support their effectiveness. For other school problems, the local district or building may choose to assume the role of developer. This frequently requires a greater investment of time and money. Developing programs locally can cost more than 20 times as much as adopting an existing program. On the other hand, the district may have the professional expertise, support staff, and other resources necessary to carry out the developer function, or it may feel that a more process-oriented approach to school improvement will assure greater staff cooperation and participation.

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[1] Loucks-Horsley, S., and Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement*, pp. 17-36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

In Either Case, What are Some Things District Planners Can Do to Implement New Practices More Smoothly?

Whether your district is going to build a new program, policy, or set of practices from scratch, or whether your district is going to identify, select, and apply materials or procedures developed elsewhere, there are some key elements for program planners to consider. These include:

1. **Choose the staff to design or implement the new program** or practice.
   A key decision to be made is whether the program will be voluntary or mandated, piloted with a few schools or implemented whole-scale. Who is selected to plan or to implement can be critical to the success of a school improvement effort.

2. **Determine what levels of skill or knowledge already exist.** This step will help to target staff development and support needs.

3. **Give the new program or practice a fair trial** by sticking with it for a specified amount of time. Encourage staff to suspend disbelief early on.

4. **Refrain from making major adaptations too early.** One of the most common is "watering the program down" by selecting only the easiest or most attractive to do.

5. **Encourage staff to put in the extra time** that all first efforts require: practicing new skills, preparing new materials, using new approaches.

6. **Provide both initial and followup training** to assure that new methods, materials, objectives, and systems are fully understood. The training should be conducted by people who are totally familiar with the new program, who are experienced trainers, and who understand the principles of adult learning.

7. **Provide released time and stipends** to ensure teacher participation in training, planning, and evaluation of programs.

8. **Assign support roles to provide followup assistance** during the implementation phase. Demonstrations, coaching, problem-solving sessions, and informal observations are all examples of support strategies.

9. **Establish a timeline for implementing the school improvement project.** Research suggests that a significant change in schools takes three to five years from its initiation to the point where it becomes truly incorporated into the ongoing life of a school and its classrooms.

10. **Get people involved in evaluating the impact of new programs or practices** very early. When teachers connect their daily behaviors to student performance, a powerful reinforcement takes place.

11. **Make refinements as you go.** Encourage staff to share their experiences and make small adjustments as they proceed.

12. **Ensure that the new practice "sticks."** The program or practice will be more likely to be continued if the following conditions exist:

- followup meetings with staff are conducted to review how program goals and components are being applied,
- the practice is formally acknowledged in the district curriculum plan,
- a line item budget is established to replenish materials and supplies,

- written guidelines for applying the program/practice have been developed, and
- approval and authorization from key administrators has been obtained.

Selected References

Crandall, David P. and Associates. *People, Policies, and Practices: Examining the Chain of School Improvement*, Vol. I-X. The NETWORK, Inc., Andover, Massachusetts: 1982.

Loucks, Susan F.; and Crandall, David P. "The Practice Profile: An All-Purpose Tool for Program Communication, Staff Development, Evaluation, and Implementation." The NETWORK, Inc., Andover, Massachusetts: 1982.

Loucks-Horsley, Susan; Cox, Pat L. "It's All in the Doing: What Recent Research Says About Implementation," paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, Louisiana, 1984.

In Summary

1. Schools cannot do the job alone. Collaboration between school/community/family/business/industry sectors at the policy-making level is critical.

- Business and industry leaders care about the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the entry-level workforce, too.

- Business and industry leaders can join in helping schools minimize the impact of after-school job hours, while at the same time promoting internships, field trips, guest speaker programs, and other forms of pre-vocational and career guidance activity.

2. Public relations efforts are necessary to building cooperative solutions.

- Student achievement data and performance statistics at the district level can be compared with data at the state or national level.

3. There is a broad range of causal factors and conditions leading to marginal learning performance. Some of what contributes to marginal learning may be related to characteristics of the individual; some of what contributes to marginal learning may be related to characteristics of the school organization, the school curriculum, or instructional practices.

- Educators need to acknowledge that existing schools' policies and programs may contribute to the low achievement of some learners.

- Educators need the awareness that often more flexibility in curriculum and instruction is necessary to meet individual needs of students.

4. Parent education about the importance of school attendance and achievement fosters family support for learning.

5. Comprehensive and integrated pupil services—attending to health, educational, and social needs—help to reduce the marginal learner populations of schools.

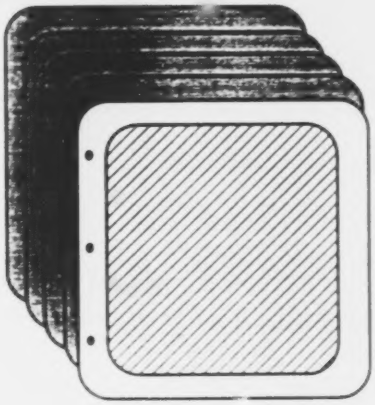
6. Simple and low-cost activities can contribute to improved performance among marginal learners. Programs do not have to be elaborate, complicated, or expensive.

7. Most schools and communities have more educational and support resources available to them than they realize.

8. The body of research on effective schools provides a useful framework for planning school and classroom responses to the needs of marginal learners.

9. More attention needs to be given to evaluating program effectiveness and relating curriculum content and instructional practices to student outcomes.

Adapted from Eberhard, R. G. (1987). *Programs That Work for At-Risk Youth*, Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education; & Peck, N. L. (1987). *Components of Successful Dropout Prevention Programs*. Miami, FL: University of Miami, Center for Dropout Prevention.



Transparencies

Module 5 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Examine constraints to implementing motivational programs and characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners.

2. Generate a list of decisionmaking criteria to be used to select programs to meet the needs of marginal learners.

3. Explore considerations necessary in planning for adapting and adopting programs and practices for marginal learners.

Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners

ADAPTING	Using key features of a program developed elsewhere, but with minor adjustments and accommodations to local constraints and circumstances.
ADOPTING	Using key features of a program developed elsewhere with much the same organization, structure, and sequence as the original model.
PROGRAM	An organized and tested set of practices.
PRACTICES	One or more teacher behaviors or student activities that contribute to learning.
MARGINAL LEARNER	Student with a generally poor record of academic achievement, school social behavior, and/or participation in class and school activities.

Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners

- Strong leadership
- Affective and cognitive emphasis
- Flexible
- Goal–oriented
- Needs–driven
- Research–based
- Small enrollment
- Autonomous
- Student–centered
- Nontraditional
- Experiential
- Positive and supportive
- Supported by timely and accurate data
- Connected to the home

Programs for Marginal Learners: Six Approaches

1. Implementing early identification and prevention practices.
2. Providing compensatory or remedial programs.
3. Designing occupational support-vocationally oriented programs.
4. Offering alternative school programs.
5. Strengthening inservice programs for teachers.
6. Establishing out–of–school youth recovery programs.

Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems: Seven Steps

1. Defining the problem locally
2. Developing criteria for the solution
3. Identifying local resources and constraints
4. Locating outside resources
5. Applying criteria to select solutions
6. Making a decision
7. Transforming a solution into a definable practice

Adapted from Loucks–Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement,* pp. 17–36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

“Ideal” Solutions to Meeting Needs of Marginal Learners

Solution	Rationale

Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners

1. School improvement activities must address persistent problems and increase the capacity of the organization to attack future ones.

2. School improvement cannot happen unless something observably different occurs between teachers and students.

3. School improvement efforts are more likely to have lasting effects when the solutions to problems are defined as classroom practices so that teachers have clear images of what desired practices look like and what is expected.

Adapted from Loucks–Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement*, pp. 17–36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

Key Elements in Planning for the Implementation of Programs for Marginal Learners

Does this practice generally occur in your school or district?

Item	Number of "Yes" Responses
1. Choosing program staff carefully	
2. Determining existing skills	
3. Giving the program a fair trial	
4. Refraining from making changes too early	
5. Putting in extra time	
6. Providing both initial and follow–up training	
7. Providing released time and stipends	
8. Assigning support roles	
9. Establishing a realistic timeline	
10. Evaluating the daily impact of new practices	
11. Making refinements as you go	
12. Ensuring that the new practice "sticks"	

MODULE 6

The Role of School Leaders in Supporting Programs for Marginal Learners

The effective school is self-renewing. The desire to diagnose and the determination to solve student learning difficulties provide the impetus for ongoing improvement. Self-renewing schools are characterized by a can-do attitude based on confidence that the school community can improve through reflection on assumptions and modification of practice. Leadership is critical to fostering this belief and furthering the self-renewal process.

School leaders, including principals, assistant principals, teachers, involved community members and parents, and all other staff at appropriate times, are both the symbolic and real leaders of their schools. Their daily actions and routine behaviors are subtle, or not-so-subtle, forces that can result in improved programs for all learners, more effective instructional practices, and more satisfying learning environments. In this module, participants will reflect on a research-based framework for examining the actions of school leaders in promoting programs for marginal learners. They will identify specific concepts to be communicated to students, community, and staff. Finally, some guiding principles for school-based teams working to develop programs for marginal learners will be provided.

Module 6. Training Agenda for Focused Workshop
(3 hours, 40 minutes)

Time Required

20 minutes	Activity 1	Introduction and Overview—group activity
30 minutes	Activity 2	Marginal Learning: Key Concepts—lecturette and group brainstorming
20 minutes	Activity 3	Examining Leader Behaviors—small group activity
10 minutes	Break	
30 minutes	Activity 4	Specific Concepts to be Communicated to Community and Staff—small group activity
80 minutes	Activity 5	Planning Considerations for School Improvement Teams—lecturette and / or panel
20 minutes	Activity 6	A Framework for Leadership—group activity
5 minutes	Activity 7	Resource Review
5 minutes	Activity 8	Wrap-up and Session Evaluation
220 minutes		

Note: A useful resource for this workshop's Activity 3 might be *Implementing Schoolwide Projects: An Idea Book*, available from the U. S. Department of Education (1994). It provides information on how successful schoolwide projects have achieved results in high–poverty schools, based on in–depth interviews with administrators and teachers. Sections may be copied for use in this workshop. Contact the Planning and Evaluation Service of the U. S. Department of Education at 400 Maryland Avenue, S. W., Washington, D. C. 20202–8100; or phone 202/401–0590 for copies in advance of the workshop.

Trainer's Instructions

Activity 1. Introductions and Overview

Trainer's Notes

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*The Role of School Leaders in Supporting Programs for Marginal Learners* *Profile of a Marginal Learner* *A Power and Control Perspective*
Transparencies:	*Module 6 Objectives* *Profile of a Marginal Learner* *A Power and Control Perspective* *Marginal Learning: Key Concepts*
Other:	Flip chart, markers

Begin by introducing yourself as the workshop facilitator. To provide focus for the workshop, distribute and ask participants to read the brief introductory handout, *The Role of School Leaders in Supporting Programs for Marginal Learners.*

Discuss the workshop's purposes and review objectives using the transparency *Module 6 Objectives*. Distribute and review the participant handout *Profile of a Marginal Learner* or use the transparency of the same title to focus participant attention on characteristics of students addressed in this workshop. Five types of abuse are included in this profile (psychological, physical, emotional, sexual, and economic). A brief explanation of "economic abuse" may be needed. Use the transparency and handout *A Power and Control Perspective.* Explain that young children may not experience "economic abuse" as might adults and employed or married youth. You may wish to ask participants for their thoughts on how a young child might be "economically abused." (Some may suggest loss of school lunch money or personal possessions to bullies.) Ask for additions to the list of marginal learner characteristics and record responses on the transparency.

Point out that the next activity highlights key concepts of marginality that may be affected by leadership. Briefly mention topics on the transparency *Marginal Learning: Key Concepts* without further explanation at this time.

If workshop participants have not had an opportunity to be introduced to one another, now might be a good time to have each person state his or her name, position, and organizational affiliation (school, district, agency, etc.). Ask each participant to state his or her name and a one– or two–word school leadership role that may be crucial to the provision of interventions for marginal learners. Remind them to relate suggested leadership roles to the list of characteristics generated on the *Profile of a Marginal Learner* transparency. In addition, ask them to keep in mind that the term *leader* needs broad interpretation since all teachers, school support personnel, community members, and others serve as leaders at appropriate times.

Display the transparency *Profile of a Marginal Learner* while participants formulate responses. Label a flip chart sheet *School Leadership Roles—Marginal Learners* and record participant responses. Post and refer to the responses of participants about leadership roles periodically to ensure that concerns are addressed, and again at the end of the workshop to provide closure.

If this workshop is part of a continuing series or a segment of a larger conference where introductions have already occurred, you may adapt this activity as appropriate.

Activity 2. Marginal Learning: Key Concepts

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Marginal Learning: Key Concepts*
Transparencies:	*Marginal Learning: Key Concepts* *Blitz–A–List*
Other:	Background readings, Tab #8 (optional) Flip chart, markers

Use the participant handout *Marginal Learning: Key Concepts* as the basis for a lecture highlighting key concepts related to the marginal learner and what is known about effective leadership responses to the varying needs of marginal learners. The boldface type statements in the participant handout may be reproduced on a flip chart sheet or use the transparency *Marginal Learning: Key Concepts* to signal the key points. You may also refer to the background readings in Tab #8 to assist in developing the lecture. Relevant readings include the following:

> *Background Paper—Marginal Learners: Ways to Help Through Instruction and Policy*, section "How Can Teachers and Other School Leaders Work Together to Improve Instruction for Marginal Learners?" by Douglas S. Fleming
>
> *Principal Leadership and Student Achievement* by Richard L. Andrews and Roger Soder

Explain the activity, **"Blitz–a–List,"** meaning to generate a list very quickly by stating the first thought that comes to mind. This is a form of **brainstorming** that rapidly produces a set of ideas from the group. Use the *Blitz–a–List* transparency to remind participants of the four goals of brainstorming. Alternately, you may wish to copy the goals onto flip chart paper and post them for future reference.

All group members must do the following:

1. Suspend judgment.
2. Contribute.
3. Record / accept all responses.
4. Gather information for later decisionmaking.

Ask participants to **Blitz–a–List** of leader behaviors that might facilitate each of the nine key concepts presented in the lecture. List responses on the transparency *Marginal Learners: Key Concepts*.

After collecting responses for each key concept, ask participants to categorize each of the leader behaviors into one of four broad roles: *Resource Provider, Instructional Coach, Communicator,* and *Symbolic Presence*. Label these on the *Marginal Learners: Key Concepts* transparency as participants respond. Alternately, write each of the four leadership roles on a separate sheet of flip chart paper and copy behaviors from the transparency to the flip charts as participants suggest their placement. Point out that in the next activity participants will continue to examine these four types of leadership behavior.

Anticipated responses under each heading might include the following:

RESOURCE PROVIDER

Shares materials with individuals and teams / committees.
Distributes information to others through mail, meetings.
Provides opportunities to participate in staff development, travel to other school programs.
Allocates resources to individuals and groups improving their practices and programs.

INSTRUCTIONAL COACH

Actively engages in staff development with faculty.
Acts like a learner, too.
States expectations for continual improvement in classroom performance.

COMMUNICATOR

Models commitment to school and district goals.
Articulates vision of desired instructional behaviors.
Describes planning steps and local process for improvement.
Sets clear performance standards for teachers and students.

SYMBOLIC PRESENCE

Visits classrooms.
Attends committee meetings.
Monitors hallways and common areas.
Holds spontaneous conversations with staff, is supportive, and acknowledges effort.
Voices approval for the project at PTA / PTO and board of education meetings and within the community.

Activity 3. Examining Leader Behaviors

Materials needed:

Transparency: *Leadership Behaviors: Obstacles and Resources/Supports*

Other: Flip chart paper, markers

Note: A **useful resource** for this activity might be *Implementing Schoolwide Projects: An Idea Book*, available from the U. S. Department of Education (1994). It describes how successful schoolwide projects have achieved results in schools that serve some of the nation's most disadvantaged children. Case studies are based on in–depth interviews with administrators and teachers. They illustrate how local leadership, initiative, and determination can be the foundation for planning programs that ensure all children meet high academic standards. In addition, information is provided on three aspects of successful implementation: leadership and planning, academic focus and instructional flexibility, and accountability. Appropriate sections may be copied for use in this activity or others. Contact the Planning and Evaluation Service of the U. S. Department of Education at 400 Maryland Avenue, S. W., Washington, D. C. 20202–8100; or phone 202/401–0590 for copies in advance of the workshop.

Write one of these four leadership roles on four separate flip chart pages: *Resource Provider, Instructional Coach, Communicator, and Symbolic Presence.* Divide participants into groups and assign each group a different leadership role. If the number of workshop participants is very large, create two groups for one or more of the roles. Explain that each group has the task of generating two lists—"obstacles" and "resources / supports"—that might facilitate effective leadership behaviors and activities in the assigned role. (Illustrate by showing the transparency *Leadership Behaviors: Obstacles and Resources/Supports.* Each group should assign a recorder and a reporter. Groups may use the lists of behaviors generated in Activity 2 as a springboard. A recorder for each group should note "obstacles" and "resources / supports" on flip chart paper. Groups might decide to use two columns, a web, or another graphic organizer to illustrate their findings.

Conclude the activity by asking the recorder from each group to post the flip chart and the reporter to briefly share critical findings for each role. As a transition to Activity 4, explain that many of the behaviors and supports identified by participants are cited by the research and that specific behaviors for communicating to community and staff are examined in the next activity.

Activity 4. Specific Concepts to be Communicated to Community and Staff

Materials needed:

Handout:	*Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do*
Transparency:	*Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do*
Other:	Flip chart and markers (optional)

This activity extends the previous activity by shifting from the general role of the leader to the actual focus on content that the leader is trying to convey. Distribute the participant handout *Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do*. Divide the participants into small discussion groups. Assign each group one or two items from the handout page. Invite them to discuss the items and to give specific examples from their own experience or to suggest recommendations for action under the headings they have discussed. Conclude the activity by sampling some of the responses to the suggested items, or by recording the underlined sentences on a flip chart (or use the transparency *Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do*), and asking for a show of hands of individual participants who are actually doing these things in their schools or districts. In this way, an activity map of the audience will be produced. The tally sheet can show where participants may need more information or assistance.

Activity 5. Planning Considerations for School Improvement Teams

Materials needed:

Handouts:	*The Planning Process* *Team Planning:* Objectives *Team Planning: Activities and Changes* *Team Planning: Work Sheet* *Team Planning: Action Plan Sheet* *Action Plan Rubric*
Transparencies:	*The Planning Process* *Action Plan Rubric*

Other: *Transforming the Curriculum for Students 'At Risk'* (optional)

This activity will help participants to develop an action plan that will contribute to implementing programs for marginal learners. The participant handout and transparency *The Planning Process* provides an outline for a brief lecture highlighting planning considerations for school improvement planners. Use the transparency to signal the main ideas during presentation of the lecture. In a more elaborate workshop program, this lecture could serve as a summary statement following a presentation by a panel of representatives from local schools or districts with successful programs. Or, it could serve as an advance organizer for preparing a panel to discuss program development and implementation issues. Refer to the Tab # 8 background reading, *Transforming the Curriculum for Students 'At Risk'* by John O'Neil, to assist lecture preparation.

Following the lecture, ask participants to work in school teams or table groups, using information from the handout *The Planning Process* to develop an action plan for their school. Give each participant a copy of the handouts *Team Planning: Objectives; Team Planning: Activities and Changes; Team Planning: Work Sheet; Team Planning: Action Plan Sheet* ; and *Action Plan Rubric*, along with flip chart paper, masking tape, and markers. Each team should appoint a recorder and a reporter to share the team's planning assessment, activities, and action plan with the total group.

Review the *Action Plan Rubric* in advance to familiarize participants with the criteria for their plan. In recording responses to the *Team Planning: Work Sheet* it may be necessary to use the back of the sheet for additional space. The *Action Plan Sheet* outline should be recorded on flip chart paper and posted on a nearby wall.

Using the transparencies for team planning and referring to the five handouts listed below, explain that during this planning session each team is to do the following:

1. generate four priority objectives that relate to the goal of assisting marginal learners in your school/district (*Team Planning: Objectives*);
2. describe activities and changes necessary to achieving one of these objectives for marginal learners (*Team Planning: Activities and Changes*);
3. discuss rationale, resources and supports, and evaluation needed to implement the action plan (*Team Planning: Work Sheet*);
4. complete an action plan (*Team Planning: Action Plan Sheet*); and
5. evaluate the team plan (*Action Plan Rubric*).

Allow 50 minutes for teams to complete their work. Then ask a reporter from each team to briefly share their team's findings and plans. Wrap up the activity by briefly reviewing the nine planning considerations from the handout *The Planning Process*. Use the transparency of the same name to highlight each component of the process.

Activity 6. A Framework for Leadership

Materials needed:

Handout:	*A Framework for Leadership*
Transparency:	*Framework for Leadership*
Other:	Flip chart, markers Index cards (optional)

Begin by posting, on a flip chart or by using the transparency *Framework for Leadership*, the four headings from the participant handout *A Framework for Leadership*:

Advocate

Educate

Activate

Integrate

Distribute and discuss the participant handout *A Framework for Leadership*. This framework describes an overall approach to promoting the development of locally adopted or adapted practices that increase opportunities for success in school for marginal learners. An important assumption of this framework is that change in schools takes time, quite often two to three years just to plan for and initiate a new practice, and an additional three to five years to fully implement and integrate program practices as part of the school's or district's standard operating procedure.

In conclusion, invite participants to reflect on and summarize what they have learned through the workshop activities by declaring some "personal intentions" in one or more of the framework categories. Ask participants to form table groups of six to eight. Distribute the index cards, one per person, or use the form provided at the bottom of the handout. Participants should write their personal intention(s) and then share them around the table in a **Tellaround**. A recorder for each group may keep a record of ideas, and a reporter may summarize responses to the total group.

Encourage participants to return to their schools/districts to implement their action plans and personal intentions. Suggest that they insert copies of the action plan and intention sheets into lesson plans each month as a reminder, or "call to action." Plans might also be "approved" or "signed-off on" by school principals or district supervisors and shared with other school staff, students, and/or community members.

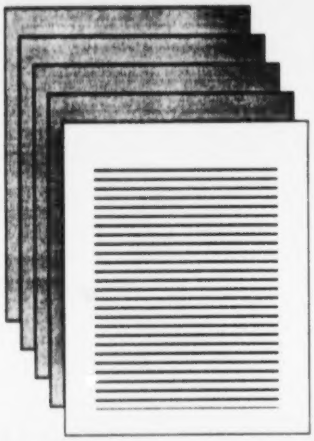
Activity 7. Resource Review

Refer to displayed resources on helping marginal learners. These resources serve as materials available for further reading, reflection, and professional development.

Activity 8. Wrap-up and Session Evaluation

Materials needed: *Workshop Evaluation Form* (Tab #7)

Distribute a session evaluation form to be completed by participants and returned to you.



Participant Handouts

Module 6: The Role of School Leaders in Supporting Programs for Marginal Learners

The effective school is self-renewing. The desire to diagnose and the determination to solve student learning difficulties provide the impetus for ongoing improvement. Self-renewing schools are characterized by a can-do attitude based on confidence that the school community can improve through reflection on assumptions and modification of practice. Leadership is critical to fostering this belief and furthering the self-renewal process.

School leaders, including principals, assistant principals, lead teachers, department chairpersons, and all other staff at appropriate times, are both the symbolic and real leaders of their schools. Their daily actions and routine behaviors are subtle, or not-so-subtle, forces that can result in improved programs for all learners, more effective instructional practices, and more satisfying learning environments. In this module, participants will reflect on a research-based framework for examining the actions of school leaders in promoting programs for marginal learners. They will identify specific concepts to be communicated to students, community, and staff. Finally, some guiding principles for school-based teams working to develop programs for marginal learners will be provided.

Profile of a Marginal Learner

Marginal learner status may be predicted in a student who has a *combination* of the following factors:

- Child of a single teen parent
- Low birth–weight
- Poverty/distressed neighborhood
- Abuse (psychological, physical, emotional, sexual, or economic)
- Frequent health problems (mental, physical, or emotional)
- Low parental expectations for education/career
- Lack of family involvement in the student's education
- Retention in one or more grades
- Teen parent
- Academic rank at the bottom quartile
- Probable failure in one or more subjects
- Inadequate credits toward high school graduation
- Exemplary performance in one or two classes
- Inadequate mastery of basic skills
- Frequent attitude and conduct problems in school
- Frequent disengagement from class activities and homework
- Drug, alcohol, or tobacco use in and/or outside of school
- Frequent tardiness or truancy
- Arrest for or involvement in misdemeanor or violent crimes

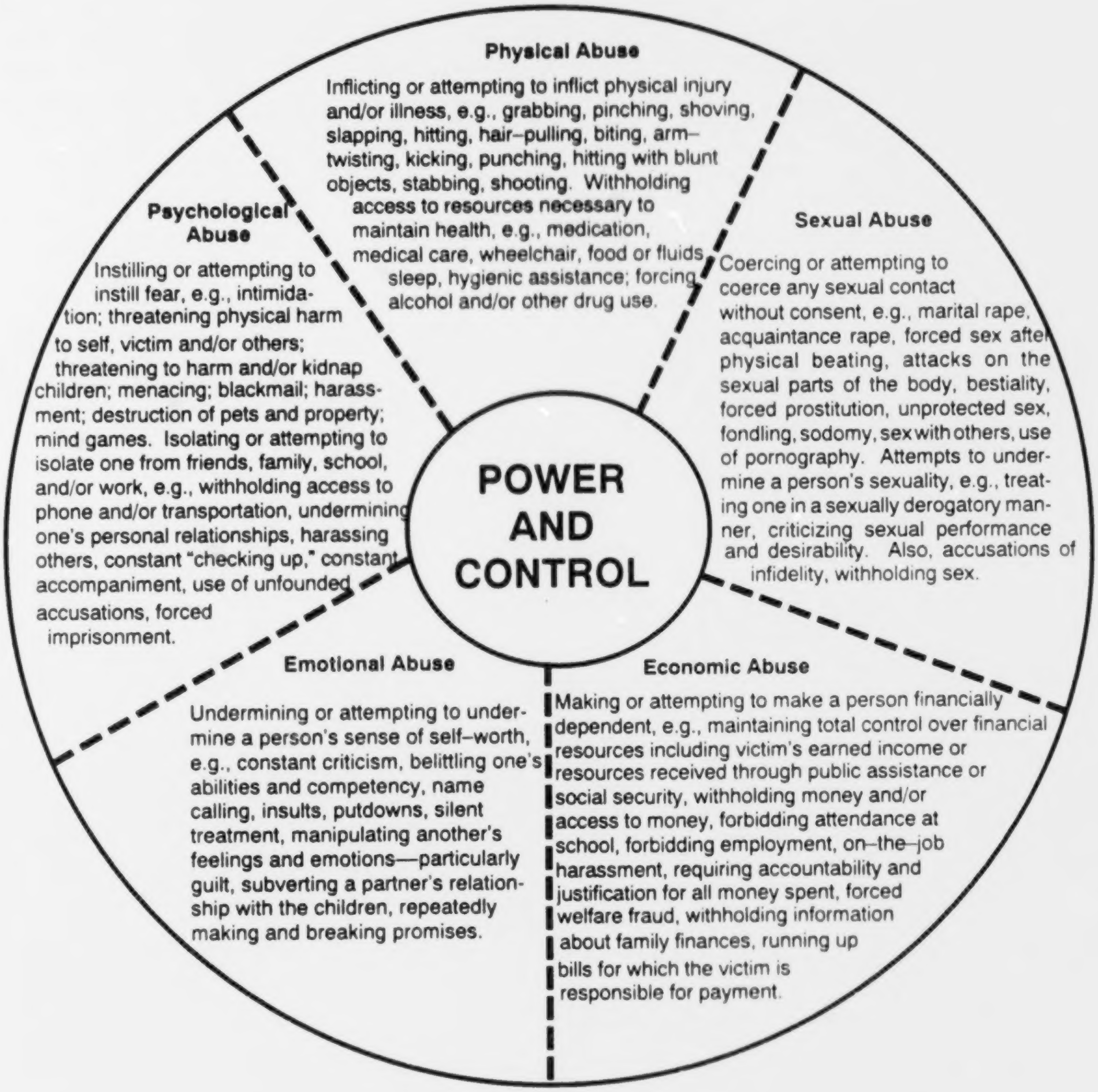
Sources:

Annie E. Casey Foundation. (1994). *Kids Count Data Book.* Greenwich, CT: Author.

New York State Office for Prevention of Domestic Violence. (1990). *A Power and Control Perspective.* NY: Author.

Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student,* Fastback No. 197. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

A Power and Control Perspective



POWER AND CONTROL

Physical Abuse

Inflicting or attempting to inflict physical injury and/or illness, e.g., grabbing, pinching, shoving, slapping, hitting, hair–pulling, biting, arm–twisting, kicking, punching, hitting with blunt objects, stabbing, shooting. Withholding access to resources necessary to maintain health, e.g., medication, medical care, wheelchair, food or fluids, sleep, hygienic assistance; forcing alcohol and/or other drug use.

Sexual Abuse

Coercing or attempting to coerce any sexual contact without consent, e.g., marital rape, acquaintance rape, forced sex after physical beating, attacks on the sexual parts of the body, bestiality, forced prostitution, unprotected sex, fondling, sodomy, sex with others, use of pornography. Attempts to undermine a person's sexuality, e.g., treating one in a sexually derogatory manner, criticizing sexual performance and desirability. Also, accusations of infidelity, withholding sex.

Economic Abuse

Making or attempting to make a person financially dependent, e.g., maintaining total control over financial resources including victim's earned income or resources received through public assistance or social security, withholding money and/or access to money, forbidding attendance at school, forbidding employment, on–the–job harassment, requiring accountability and justification for all money spent, forced welfare fraud, withholding information about family finances, running up bills for which the victim is responsible for payment.

Emotional Abuse

Undermining or attempting to undermine a person's sense of self-worth, e.g., constant criticism, belittling one's abilities and competency, name calling, insults, putdowns, silent treatment, manipulating another's feelings and emotions—particularly guilt, subverting a partner's relationship with the children, repeatedly making and breaking promises.

Psychological Abuse

Instilling or attempting to instill fear, e.g., intimidation; threatening physical harm to self, victim and/or others; threatening to harm and/or kidnap children; menacing; blackmail; harassment; destruction of pets and property; mind games. Isolating or attempting to isolate one from friends, family, school, and/or work, e.g., withholding access to phone and/or transportation, undermining one's personal relationships, harassing others, constant "checking up," constant accompaniment, use of unfounded accusations, forced imprisonment.

Adapted from *Domestic Abuse Intervention Project*, Duluth, MN. Copywright © 1990 by the New York State Office for the Prevention of Domestic Violence, Rensselaer, NY. Reprinted with permission.

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Marginal Learning: Key Concepts

1. There are several **sources of marginal learning behaviors**:

- contradictions between the expectations of home and school,
- pressures from the adolescent culture,
- conflict with authority figures, and
- characteristics of the individual learner.

2. There are **common elements** among marginal learners:

- unhappy,
- unsuccessful, and
- unwelcome.

3. There are **mixed attitudes** toward marginal learners that are held by both teachers and administrators:

- about the ability of marginal learners to improve academically and socially, and
- about their own ability to effectively motivate, relate to, or instruct marginal learners.

4. There is **no one right way or program** to meet the needs of all marginal learners.

5. There are some "knowns" about the **characteristics of successful programs** for marginal learners:

- the programs are **small** (25-60 students; 2-6 staff) and **autonomous** (own name, space, facilities);
- the teachers assume **extended roles**;
- there is a caring, interdependent, **family** atmosphere—students share responsibility for program success;
- curriculum and instructional practices are individualized, **experiential**, active, and community-based;
- educational experiences are more **cooperative** than competitive, stress **initiative** and **responsibility**, foster **competence** and **success** to build self-confidence, and frequently model and practice **reflection** on experiences and ideas related to people and institutions.

6. **Two conditions** are essential to successfully introduce programs for marginal learners:

- There must be a **critical mass** of faculty convinced of the need for a program and willing to work together for its success.
- This group must have the enthusiastic **support of the administration**.

7. A **mix of approaches** is both more comprehensive and more likely to succeed:

- blend of instruction and socialization;
- design of early prevention, late prevention, recovery programs; and
- array of approaches to targeted learner groups.

8. Effective programs for marginal learners define their success in terms of **student outcomes**:

- reduced levels of truancy, tardiness, or suspensions from school;
- increased daily average attendance;
- credit attainment toward graduation;
- fewer disciplinary referrals;
- fewer referrals for special education testing; and
- testimony from students, parents, and educators.

9. There are at least three major reasons **why schools should be concerned** about educating marginal learners:

- equity: providing education for all in a democratic society;
- correlation between lack of education and social problems: crime, welfare, unemployment, and family stress;
- public perception and reduced support for education.

Sources:
Adapted from Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student,* Fastback 197, pp. 41-43. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation; & Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal.* Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do

1. **Hold up the ideals** of education in a democratic society. Articulate the public school mission of quality education for all students. Points include:

- free elementary and secondary education for all up to age 16 and to any interested persons through grade 12;
- optimum access to facilities and programs, and placement in the least restrictive learning environment;
- a comprehensive program of studies and activities that reflects a balance of academic, vocational, social, and personal goals; and
- affirmative action to reduce barriers to success due to economic, racial, gender, or cultural differences among students.

2. **Get the facts out to the public.** Use statistics to illustrate what is wrong and what is working. Collect data related to research on:

- who is marginal—and why;
- characteristics of school organization and administration that enhance or hinder conditions for marginal learners;
- variables of school climate and culture contributing to effective learning environments; and
- patterns in curriculum and instructional practices that work well with marginal learners.

3. **Promote local discussion**. Encourage teachers, parents, and community members to identify problems, issues, and proposed solutions.

4. **Organize new structures** or coalitions to address the needs of marginal learners.

5. **Better connect community programs,** agencies, and other service organizations whose efforts are now fragmented

6. **Encourage school/community partnerships** that dissolve barriers between the world of school and the world of work: cooperative education programs, mentor programs, and career education programs.

7. **Promote community service opportunities** that allow students to make real contributions to the community and develop productive values, habits, and skills.

8. **Ask for the resources** to do the job. Raise both public and private resources.

9. **Let people know your appreciation** of their efforts to improve conditions for marginal learners. Write notes. Make phone calls. Move around. Be generous with praise and approval.

Sources:
Adapted from Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student,* Fastback 197, pp. 41-43. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation; & Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal.* Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

The Planning Process

1. **Planning takes time**—generally more than people anticipate. Set aside adequate time for people to meet and plan. Some shorter meetings after school are frequently desirable, but carve out longer blocks for people to work, too: maybe one facilitated, whole–day planning session followed by a few half-day sessions or several two–and–a–half-hour blocks. Secure released time during the school year or a work period during the summer. Consider stipends or inservice credit as incentives for program planners. Make sure the people who are likely to carry out the plan are involved in the discussions.

2. **Require the development of a formal written plan** of work or proposal. This gets down on paper what everyone thinks that they have agreed to do. It becomes a public record and official commitment. Teachers, administrators, parents, school board members, and potential student participants should have opportunities to review and comment.

3. The plan should **state the project mission and provide a rationale**. It should define the target populations to be served, list specific objectives to be achieved, outline the operating structure, and describe the major activities or programs that give the project definition and uniqueness. An implementation timeline and general budget framework should be included.

4. **Identify local strengths and assets as well as weaknesses or potential roadblocks** to smooth implementation. Build on the strengths and develop strategies to counter the weaknesses.

5. Survey the community to **identify resources, sources of support, and potential sites for experiential/work/enrichment activities** that connect youth to adults and institutions.

6. **Engage in shared ownership activities** events, contests, ceremonies, publications, rituals, games activities that promote goodwill and understanding. These things make your program familiar, approachable, and part of the landscape. They announce and promote its achievements and successes. They raise public awareness and perception of the school district response to the needs of marginal learners.

7. Plan to **vary the instructional delivery** of the academic components of programs for marginal learners.

- Some work will be highly individualized even drill and practice.
- Some work will be cooperative and have a team-building thrust.
- Some work will be explicit, short-term, and clearly achievable.
- Some work will stretch students beyond the basics of recall, comprehension, and application and toward more abstract thinking and higher order questioning.
- Some work will help students to look at themselves and reflect on their attitudes and experiences with adults and institutions.
- Some work will deal with social responsibility and social issues.

8. Consider the following elements in **planning experiential components** of programs for marginal learners.

- Adequate lead time is needed to identify, recruit, and negotiate work and field trip sites.
- Once identified, work sites need to be monitored to ensure that students are punctual, on task, and reliable.
- Sites also need to be monitored to ensure that supervising adults understand the larger goals of the program and are providing the desired experiences for students.
- Develop a brochure or brief prospectus describing the program and its purposes. This will facilitate introduction and explanation of the

program as a legitimate community-based or experiential program.

9. **Include an evaluation component** for your program. This will yield useful information for both project staff and district administrators at the end of the first year. Project staff can use the data to make adjustments in academic, social, or experiential components of the program. District administrators and others who make resource allocations will want easily documented data related to student daily attendance, learning skills achievement, credit attainment, job placement, or other planned project outcomes. The evaluation report might include a section on unanticipated outcomes as well, or testimony from students, parents, and other adults associated with the program.

Adapted from Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student,* Fastback No. 197, pp. 41–43. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

Team Planning: Objectives

During this planning session, your team is to (1) generate four priority objectives that relate to the goal of assisting marginal learners in your school/district (*Team Planning: Objectives*); (2) describe activities and changes necessary to implement programs for marginal learners (*Team Planning: Activities and Changes*); (3) discuss rationale, resources and supports, and evaluation needed to implement the action plan (*Team Planning: Work Sheet*); (4) complete an action plan (*Team Planning: Action Plan Sheet*); and (5) evaluate the team plan (*Action Plan Rubric*).

Begin by establishing four priority objectives.

Goal: Assisting Marginal Learners in My School/District

Objectives:

1. ____

____

____

2. ____

____

____

3. ____

____

____

4. ____

____

____

Team Planning: Activities and Changes

Goal: Assisting Marginal Learners in My School/District

Objective: ____

Activities: ____

Changes: ____

Team Planning: Work Sheet

1. What do you hope to accomplish (what experiences do you want for students?) What is your mission?

2. How will time for developing a plan to meet needs of marginal learners be created?

3. Why do you choose to focus on this aspect of marginality? What is your rationale/needs assessment?

4. What activities and opportunities can be offered to vary instructional delivery for marginal learners in your school?

5. What are some activities that could be implemented to promote shared ownership and positive public relations?

6. What barriers to smooth implementation exist, and how might they be overcome?

7. What resources and supports will be needed to implement these activities?

8. What resources exist? How will you locate needed resources?

9. What timeline would you suggest for these activities?

10. What budget considerations are necessary?

11. Who will be responsible for initiating, promoting, and following up on these activities?

12. When and how will team members meet to plan, observe each other's teaching, and confer about implementation?

13. How will you know if you have succeeded (what data and other information will you need)?

Team Planning: Action Plan Sheet

Goal: Assisting Marginal Learners

Objective: ____________________

Activities	Persons Responsible		Timeline	Resources
	Initiation	Follow-up		

By ____________ (date) we will have accomplished ____________________

____________________ (first steps)

Signed ____________________ (team members)

Action Plan Rubric

1. Plans are SPECIFIC and CONCRETE.
   Actions and activities are carefully detailed.
   Timelines are based on events, reports, and decisions.
   Records are kept (meetings, activities, responsibilities).

2. Plans are stated in MEASURABLE terms.
   ...to increase math performance by 20 percent on criterion referenced tests.
   ...to decrease number of students needing reading remediation by 30 percent.
   ...to introduce math manipulatives in 25 percent of all classes.

3. Plans are REALISTIC and ATTAINABLE.
   Resources
   Time
   Money, and
   People needed to do the job are estimated.

4. Plans address the problem situation and goals in MULTIPLE WAYS.
   Policies
   Programs
   Practices
   Personnel

5. Plans address the problem situation and goals through MULTIPLE AUDIENCES, including:
   Teachers
   Administrators
   Students
   Parents
   Community members

6. Plans address the problem situation and goals through MULTIPLE FORUMS.
   Professional development
   Visits to other schools
   Meetings
   Study groups
   Action research cycles
   etc.

7. Plans are MONITORED and ADJUSTED based on student outcomes.
   Timeline
   Regular interval (monthly) events during the school year
   Evaluation plans
   Evaluation data analysis
   Revisions

Rate your action plan on the seven standards, using the following scale:

Exceeds Standards,
Meets Standards, or
Not There Yet

Specific and Concrete ______________________________

Measurable ______________________________

Realistic and Attainable ______________________________

Relevant to the problem in Multiple Ways ______________________________

Addresses the problem through Multiple Audiences ______________________________

Addresses the problem through Multiple Forums ______________________________

Monitored and Adjusted ______________________________

Adapted, with permission, from Fleming, D. (1990). *Action Planning: Moving from Vision to Results*. Lunenburg, MA: School Strategies & Options.

A Framework for Leadership

ADVOCATE: Use research and districtwide planning and implementation of programs; voice the public school mission of education for all students; establish and support shared-governance structures for airing concerns, developing collegial attitudes; and rallying around common goals.

EDUCATE: Help staff and education stakeholders learn about the characteristics of marginal learners, the sources of marginal learning behaviors, the levels of marginality, the research base on teacher behaviors and student achievement, and ways of adapting classroom practices to meet the needs of marginal learners. Introduce characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners; collect, communicate, and interpret district data on marginal learners; send key members to or invite to the district representatives from exemplary practices/programs that address the needs of marginal learners in the community. Model the varied approaches you want others to use with marginal learners. Some, you'll tell. Some, you'll sell. Others, you'll invite to work along with you. There will be some who are doing it already and those who will teach you what they have learned.

ACTIVATE: Praise and promote exemplary practices; provide awareness through informational materials that orient people to new concepts in program design and instruction; introduce sources of external assistance and expertise; support and encourage staff engaged in sustained, year-long district planning effort; provide short-range inservice activity to add to or refine staff skills; require departments or grade-levels to identify marginal learners; distribute self-assessment instruments to consider practices in teacher teams or program units; form building-based support teams to identify and handle specific problems and to generate alternative solutions; facilitate discussions of marginal learning at all meetings; assist groups of parents and teachers to test new instructional approaches, classroom policies, and teacher behaviors with marginal learners.

INTEGRATE: Make implicit and explicit the relationships between marginal learner statistical data in the district and elements of curriculum, instruction, school organization, teacher supervision, and teacher evaluation programs; combine basic skills instruction with activities that enable students to learn about their communities and themselves.

A Framework for Leadership

Personal Intention(s)

Summarize what you have learned through the workshop activities for "The Role of School Leaders Supporting Programs for Marginal Learners" by declaring one or more personal intentions within each of the four framework categories below.

Advocate ______________________________

____

____

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Educate ______________________________

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Activate ______________________________

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Integrate ______________________________

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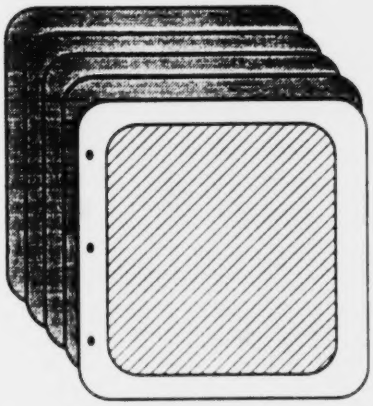

Transparencies

Module 6 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Review key concepts of marginal learning.
2. Examine leadership behaviors that impact assistance to marginal learners.
3. Develop a team action plan for leading a local school improvement effort relating to marginal learners.
4. Evaluate a team action plan for implementing activities and changes to assist marginal learners in the school/district.

Profile of a Marginal Learner

Marginal learner status may be predicted in a student who has a *combination* of some of the following factors:

- Child of a single teen parent
- Low birth–weight
- Poverty/distressed neighborhood
- Abuse (psychological, physical, emotional, sexual, or economic)
- Frequent health problems (mental, physical, or emotional)
- Low parental expectations for education/career
- Lack of parental involvement in the student's education
- Retention in one or more grades
- Teen parent
- Academic rank in the bottom quartile
- Probable failure in one or more subjects
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- Exemplary performance in one or two classes
- Inadequate mastery of basic skills
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Sources:
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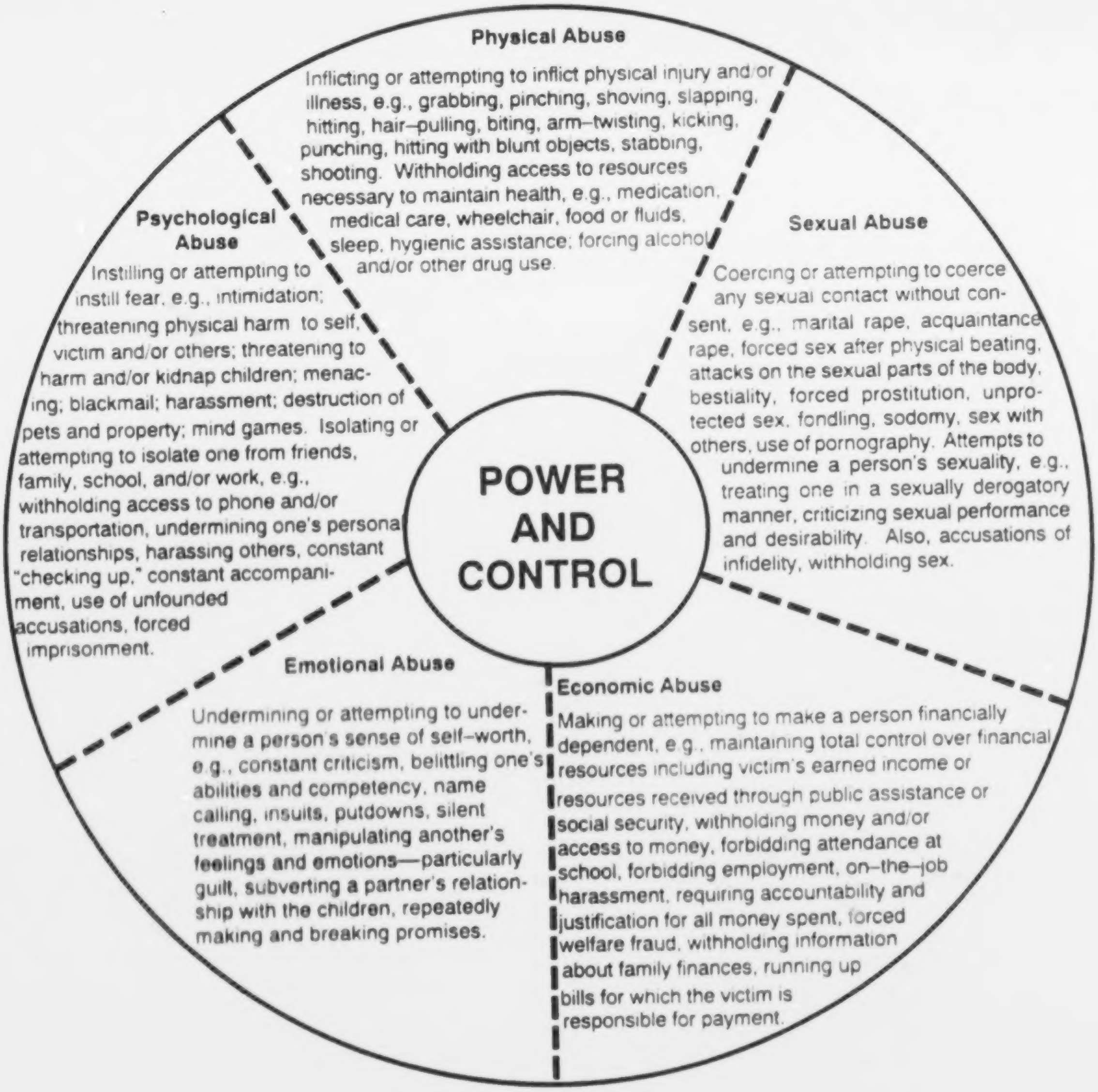
A Power and Control Perspective



Physical Abuse

Inflicting or attempting to inflict physical injury and/or illness, e.g., grabbing, pinching, shoving, slapping, hitting, hair–pulling, biting, arm–twisting, kicking, punching, hitting with blunt objects, stabbing, shooting. Withholding access to resources necessary to maintain health, e.g., medication, medical care, wheelchair, food or fluids, sleep, hygienic assistance; forcing alcohol and/or other drug use.

Sexual Abuse

Coercing or attempting to coerce any sexual contact without consent, e.g., marital rape, acquaintance rape, forced sex after physical beating, attacks on the sexual parts of the body, bestiality, forced prostitution, unprotected sex, fondling, sodomy, sex with others, use of pornography. Attempts to undermine a person's sexuality, e.g., treating one in a sexually derogatory manner, criticizing sexual performance and desirability. Also, accusations of infidelity, withholding sex.

Economic Abuse

Making or attempting to make a person financially dependent, e.g., maintaining total control over financial resources including victim's earned income or resources received through public assistance or social security, withholding money and/or access to money, forbidding attendance at school, forbidding employment, on–the–job harassment, requiring accountability and justification for all money spent, forced welfare fraud, withholding information about family finances, running up bills for which the victim is responsible for payment.

Emotional Abuse

Undermining or attempting to undermine a person's sense of self–worth, e.g., constant criticism, belittling one's abilities and competency, name calling, insults, putdowns, silent treatment, manipulating another's feelings and emotions—particularly guilt, subverting a partner's relationship with the children, repeatedly making and breaking promises.

Psychological Abuse

Instilling or attempting to instill fear, e.g., intimidation; threatening physical harm to self, victim and/or others; threatening to harm and/or kidnap children; menacing; blackmail; harassment; destruction of pets and property; mind games. Isolating or attempting to isolate one from friends, family, school, and/or work, e.g., withholding access to phone and/or transportation, undermining one's personal relationships, harassing others, constant "checking up," constant accompaniment, use of unfounded accusations, forced imprisonment.

Adapted from *Domestic Abuse Intervention Project*, Duluth, MN. Copywright © 1990 by the New York State Office for the Prevention of Domestic Violence, Rensselaer, NY. Reprinted with permission.

Marginal Learning: Key Concepts

1. Sources of marginal behaviors
2. Common elements among marginal learners
3. Attitudes toward marginal learners
4. Varied programs and practices
5. Characteristics of successful programs
6. Conditions for successful programs
7. Whole child approach
8. Benefits of effective programs—student outcomes
9. Rationale for concern about marginal learners

BLITZ–A–LIST

All group members

1. Suspend judgment.

2. Contribute.

3. Record/accept all responses.

4. Gather information for later decisionmaking.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS: OBSTACLES AND RESOURCES/SUPPORTS

Leadership Roles:

*RESOURCE PROVIDER

*INSTRUCTIONAL COACH

*COMMUNICATOR

*SYMBOLIC PRESENCE

Obstacles	Resources/Supports

Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do

1. Hold up the ideals.
2. Get the facts out to the public.
3. Promote local discussion.
4. Organize new structures.
5. Better connect community programs.
6. Encourage school/community partnerships.
7. Promote community service opportunities.
8. Ask for the resources.
9. Let people know your appreciation.

The Planning Process

1. Planning time
2. Written plan
3. Mission and rationale
4. Strengths or assets versus weaknesses or roadblocks
5. Resources
6. Shared ownership/awareness activities
7. Instructional delivery variations
8. Experiential program components
9. Evaluation program component

Action Plan Rubric

1. Plans are SPECIFIC and CONCRETE.
2. Plans are stated in MEASURABLE terms.
3. Plans are REALISTIC and ATTAINABLE.
4. Plans address the problem situation and goals in MULTIPLE WAYS.
5. Plans address the problem situation and goals through MULTIPLE AUDIENCES, including:
6. Plans address the problem situation and goals through MULTIPLE FORUMS.
7. Plans are MONITORED and ADJUSTED based on student outcomes.

Rate your action plan on the seven standards, using the following scale:

Exceeds Standards,
Meets Standards, or
Not There Yet

Specific and Concrete ______________________________

Measurable ______________________________

Realistic and Attainable ______________________________

Relevant to the problem in Multiple Ways ______________________________

Addresses the problem through Multiple Audiences ______________________________

Addresses the problem through Multiple Forums ______________________________

Monitored and Adjusted ______________________________

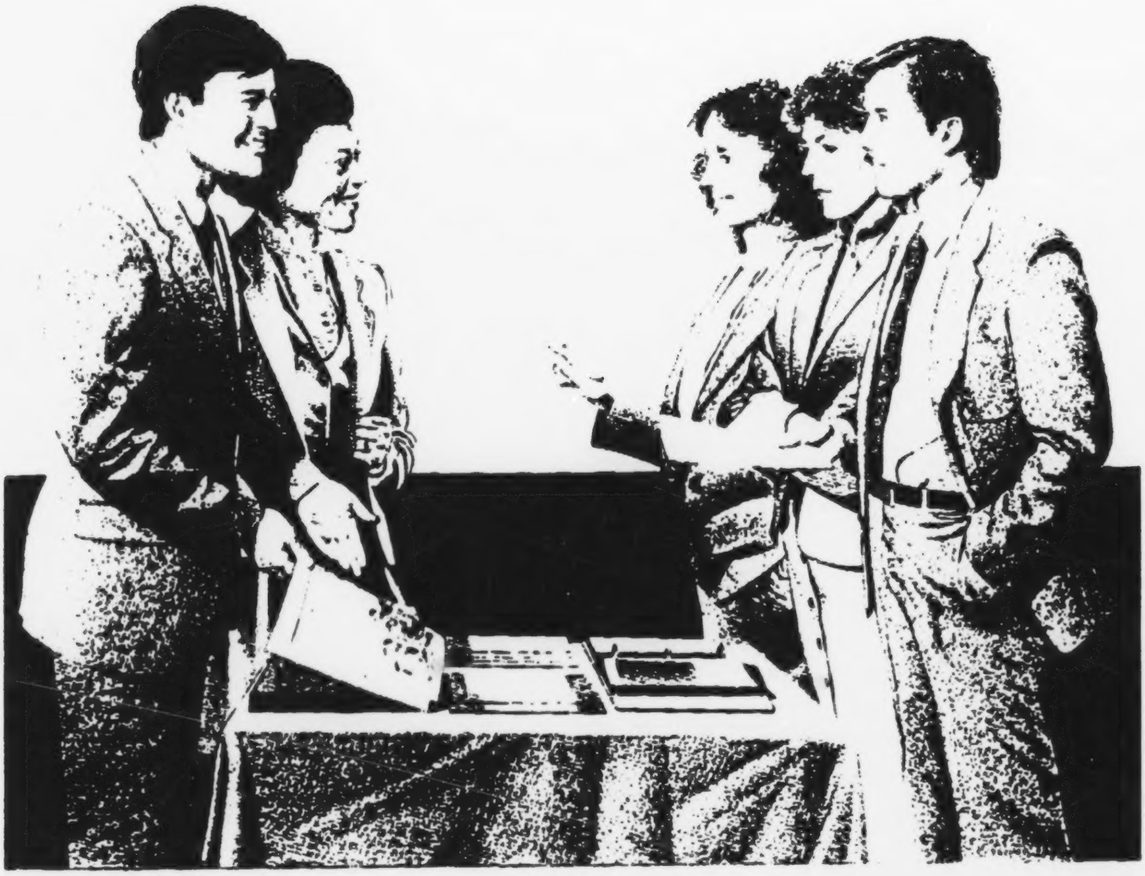
Adapted, with permission, from Fleming, D. (1990). *Action Planning: Moving from Vision to Results*. Lunenburg, MA: School Strategies & Options.

Framework for Leadership

1. Advocate
2. Educate
3. Activate
4. Integrate

MODULE 7

Promoting, Planning, Preparing, and Evaluating Marginal Learner Workshops



Promoting, Preparing, and Planning the Workshop

The workshop presenter is often responsible for all preworkshop arrangements. The following recommendations should assist in the planning phase.

1. **Promotion.** As a presenter, you should take initiative in promoting this workshop opportunity in your school or district and among your colleagues and client groups. To assist you in this effort, a workshop flyer and Executive Summary are included in Tab #7. Feel free to reproduce and use either of these.

   You can present awareness, half–, or full–day workshops using activities from one or more modules, depending upon the participants' prior experience and time available.

2. **Appropriate Audience.** This workshop can be customized to meet the needs of educators and school personnel at all levels. (See the *audience appropriateness* statement on the flyer.) AEL staff can assist you in making desired modifications for particular audience needs.

3. **Number of Participants.** The optimal number of participants is 15–40. A larger number without additional trainer assistance would impede some of the individual and small group activities. A smaller number could inhibit fruitful interaction and sharing.

4. **Facilities and Equipment.** One large room with tables that accommodate 4–6 individuals is desirable. Participants will need a writing surface. The presenter will require a screen, an overhead projector, a flip chart pad and easel, a lectern, and a front table for displaying training resources and supplies.

5. **Time Requirements.** The estimated time for completing each activity is provided. You may wish to alter activities by adding questions and time for discussion. Obviously, the number of participants scheduled to participate in a given workshop will have an impact on time requirements, particularly for activities that call for reporting out.

6. **Preworkshop Communications.** The workshop presenter should assemble and mail to prospective participants preworkshop information 10–14 days prior to the scheduled workshop, if possible. This information should communicate the scope and focus of the workshop. The package could include the following: (a) cover letter detailing time, place, and workshop purposes; (b) workshop objectives and agenda; and (c) readings, such as the background paper, *Marginal Learners: Ways to Help Through Instruction and Policy.* The presenter should consider the length and purpose of the workshop and needs of the participants in deciding which of these materials to send out before the workshop and what, if any, modifications in the materials need to be made.

Dear (Participant):

I am pleased that you will be attending the workshop, *Marginal Learners*, scheduled for (times) on (day), (date). It will be held at (location, room, and building). Directions for driving to the site follow: ______________________________.

At the workshop, you will engage in a variety of activities to help you review current and plan improved classroom, school, and district practices and policies toward marginal learners. The workshop objectives and agenda are enclosed.

Also enclosed, *(name of reading)* provides some basic information about marginal learners. I encourage you to read this prior to the workshop.

I look forward to working with you.

Sincerely,

(Workshop Leader)

Marginal Learners: Identification, Prevention, and Intervention

Executive Summary

Rationale

At-risk youth, students who fall through the cracks, learning disabled, underachievers—all are labels that have been used to describe students who are not succeeding academically or who are not behaving according to the standards and expectations of their teachers, families, or the school administration. These hard-to-reach and frequently hard-to-teach students can be found in every grade level, school and community. With a decline in the number of students being served by special education programs and a growing national trend toward providing service in least restrictive environments, the presence of at least one type of marginal learner in each classroom may become commonplace. Identifying and assisting these students and those not served by special services will be critical to their success as well as that of their classmates. Marginal learners are described herein as students, preschool through twelfth grade, whose academic performance may be less than their classmates' or whose behavior may interfere with learning.

As school faculties across the nation address both the declining home conditions of children and the increasing numbers of school dropouts, they give more attention to keeping students in school. This adds another type of marginal learner to the regular classroom: learners who have not identified with or who have openly retreated from or rebelled against the traditional range of teacher practices and organizational rules. These students may eventually be "pushed out" of the system.

In between are marginal learners who may be more difficult to identify: the *unnoticed, uninvolved,* the *sliding-by, coasting-along,* or the *dropout in the making.*

Unfortunately, few teachers have had adequate training in diagnosing the range of individual learning needs, modifying instructional strategies to accommodate them, or motivating marginal students. Often teachers lack strategies for assisting students in meeting their basic needs—survival, love and belonging, power, fun, and freedom—within school settings. Lesson design and communication strategies proven to be effective with marginal learners may not be included in the local professional development agenda. Only a handful of studies and reports attempt to define the causes of marginal learning and to identify the common elements of programs that have proven successful in connecting these students to schools.

Workshop Description

The AEL School Excellence Workshop, *Marginal Learners: Identification, Prevention, and Intervention*, helps educators to learn about the needs of marginal learners, to identify proven practices in both classroom and school-level intervention programs, and to begin planning improvement efforts based on local conditions.

Each of the six content modules is designed as a 3– to 4–hour focused workshop that can be presented individually or as part of a series sequenced from identifying marginal learners through examining and adapting school and district policies and practices to better serve these students.

Module 1 activities assist workshop participants in examining the sources of marginal learning, analyzing indicators of growing risk for children and youth, identifying characteristics of marginality, and exploring the warning signs for marginal learning.

In **Module 2**, participants develop strategies that can alleviate conditions leading to marginal learning by evaluating their own and examining a student self–assessment of psychological needs; analyzing case examples in student motivation; examining teacher behaviors that affect student achievement; and planning for improved teacher–student communication.

Participants in activities for **Module 3** learn how to adapt classroom practices to accommodate marginal learners by analyzing specific motivational techniques such as supplying missing skills, structuring the school setting for success, connecting personally with students, and getting help from other sources.

Module 4 activities guide participants through the administration of a district and school policy and program self–assessment, analysis of data, and development of a district or school effectiveness profile that begins a planning process to address marginal learner needs in the school or district.

Activities in **Module 5** provide opportunities for participants to examine constraints to implementing motivational programs for marginal learners, study characteristics of effective programs, explore a range of successful approaches, construct decisionmaking criteria for selecting programs, identify solutions to marginal learner problems, and plan for adapting and adopting programs for marginal learners in their own schools and districts.

Module 6 activities allow participants to study key concepts about marginal learning, discuss leadership behaviors that affect marginal learning, and develop and evaluate a team school improvement plan for addressing marginal learning.

Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

Module #	**Objective**
1	1. Identify characteristics of marginal learners.
1	2. Explore a variety of conditions leading to marginal learning performance.
1	3. Analyze indicators of growing risk for children and youth.
1	4. Develop a shared definition of marginality.
2	5. Explore and assess attitudes and assumptions that affect marginal learners.
2	6. Explore ways in which students can be motivated in school through an evaluation of psychological needs.
2	7. Examine teacher characteristics and behaviors that motivate marginal learners and maximize achievement.
2	8. Develop a set of in–class and in–school strategies that can alleviate conditions leading to marginal learning.
3	9. Analyze specific techniques for motivating marginal learners and for adapting classroom practices to accommodate them.
3	10. Develop methods for getting help from various sources to reach marginal students.
3	11. Identify needs and plan interventions appropriate for marginal learners in participants' schools/districts.
4	12. Conduct and analyze a self–assessment of school and district policies and practices that influence learning conditions for marginal students.
4	13. Develop a district effectiveness profile in regard to policies and programs for marginal learners.

4 14. Identify local conditions that may hinder achievement for marginal learners.

4 15. Create a plan of action for meeting the needs of marginal learners in participant schools and/or districts.

5 16. Examine constraints to implementing motivational programs and characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners.

5 17. Generate a list of decisionmaking criteria to be used to select programs to meet the needs of marginal learners.

5 18. Explore considerations necessary in planning for adapting and adopting programs and practices for marginal learners.

6 19. Examine leadership roles and behaviors that impact assistance to marginal learners.

6 20. Develop a team action plan for leading a local school improvement effort relating to marginal learners.

6 21. Evaluate a team action plan for implementing activities and changes to assist marginal learners in the school/district.

Objectives will vary depending upon modules selected for presentation.

The Trainer's Toolkit

If you have ever been in a meeting where the slide presentation had to be cancelled because an adapter unit for the wall plug could not be found, or the newsprint kept falling off the wall because the masking tape would not adhere to the fancy wallpaper, you know the importance of "little things" to a successful workshop. The following tips will make your job as a workshop facilitator easier and your participants happier. You may wish to add your own tips and reminders to these.

You can use a school lunchbox, a shoebox, a traveler's shaving kit, or an attaché to keep your essential supplies ready to go and easy to find. The Trainer's Toolkit can prevent your having to round these up the night before or to rummage through a "bottomless totebag" to find them at the workshop.

Standard Supplies

Always take:

Rubber bands
Paper clips
Large metal clamps
Scissors
Stapler with staples
Grounded adapter unit
Masking tape
Map pins
Name tags
Flip chart markers
Transparency markers
Chalk
Extra paper, pens, pencils
Index cards (secured by rubber band)
Your business cards (secured by rubber band). Give these to persons interested in another workshop.
Sign-in sheet (for future mailings, names and addresses of new clients, those interested in another workshop, those needing additional information, etc.)
Small stand-up clock (keeps you from distracting people by looking at your watch)
Timer

Add as needed:

Paper punch
Lightweight wooden photo easels or book display stands
Extension cord
Duct tape to tape down extension cord (safety factor)
Flip chart pad and stand
Post-it notes (for marking pages or making notes for easy reference)
Other items specific to the workshop

Purchasing or Ordering Supplies

Marking Pens: Water-based markers will not bleed through to the next page or onto the tablecloth or wall covering. On the other hand, they may not be as intense or dark as permanent markers. Some brands have a square bottom and will not roll off the table. Markers with 1/4" chisel tips can be held at an angle to create very thin or very thick lines and bars. The best colors for all-around use are blue and black, following by green and red. Orange or purple make an interesting contrast color as an underline or symbol, but yellow is not very visible from a distance. You'll also need wipe-off transparency pens and permanent transparency markers (use these to make your own permanent transparencies).

Making Circles: A push-pin, string, and marker can be used to scribe a fairly uniform circle. If you have a soft wooden yardstick, you can drill holes at 6" intervals. Put a push-pin through one hole at the center of your desired circles. Put a pencil tip through a hole at the most convenient radius and scribe a circle. With a marker, trace the penciled circle.

Flip Chart Pads: Standard sizes are 27" x 34". You can get them plain or ruled, absorbent- finish or smooth (hard) surfaced. The ones with blue squares allow you to letter more evenly. If you are going to make charts to be used many times, get the harder surface. If the chart is to record a group's work processes, any grade paper will do.

Newsprint paper, 18" x 24", will work just as well as a pad for many purposes, doesn't have to be torn apart, and a supply sufficient for most workshops can be rolled and secured with a couple of sturdy rubber bands.

Flip Chart Stands: The lighter and easier to fold up, the better. Some have attached back plates to which the flip chart pads are attached by screws. On others without a back plate, a separate chart clamp holds the pad in place and screws onto the top of the easel stand. Both systems collapse fairly easily and are durable enough to withstand extensive use.

Flip Chart Design Elements and Tips

1. White space makes the chart look cleaner and printed matter is easier to read. Use key words, phrases, and charts rather than too much text.

2. Keep a margin of 3" to 4" on both sides. Err to the right–hand side. The margin at the bottom should be larger than the margin at the top.

3. Indent sub–items and distinguish them by use of bullets, squares, check marks, or other symbols.

4. Keep all major and sub–items lined up vertically.

5. Lettering about 1 1/8" high, printed with the broad, flat tip of the marking pen, can be seen clearly from 35 feet away. The thickness of the letters make the difference, not just the height.

6. Face the audience as much as possible. Angle the easel for the flip chart and you won't have to completely turn your back.

Overhead Transparency Design Elements and Tips

1. The principles above also apply to overhead transparencies: large, bold letters project well.

2. Carry only one cardboard overhead transparency frame and tape it to the glass surface of the projector. You can carry more overhead transparencies without frames.

3. The overhead projector was designed to allow presenters to maintain face–to–face contact with the group as they emphasize certain points on the transparency or even mark on it. There is no need to look at the screen except to check for placement and focus.

4. Use blank paper or a 5" x 7" index card to cover portions of the transparency that are not the focus of discussion, particularly when you are making a series of points. Use two sheets of paper or index cards to "frame" an item. An alternative is to check off each point with a bright pen as you discuss it.

5. Use a water–based transparency pen to number the transparencies in the order you want to use them for each presentation. Transparencies tend to get shuffled around. There is no quicker way to lose an audience than to start searching for a missing transparency. Keep them in a large file folder in the order in which you will use them. Or insert transparencies inside clear, e–hole, flip frame transparency protectors and keep them in a 3–ring binder for transporting and storage.

6. Keep plenty of transparency markers nearby. They, too, have a way of temporarily disappearing when you need them.

7. Tape a blank sheet of paper behind each transparency at the bottom to see them better when they are stacked. This allows you to read them before placing them on the overhead projector. The blank sheet can be flipped down in front of the projector during use, then back up under the transparency for storage.

8. Get two paper towels—one wet and one dry—to use in cleaning off the projector screen or transparency if you are going to write on them.

9. Summarize, do not *read*, transparencies. Discuss the content and get input from participants. Add points with a washable transparency marker during discussion. Wipe clean so you can use again.

10. Provide handout copies of overhead transparencies so participants will not feel they have to copy everything from the screen. They will love you for it and you can keep the pace going instead of waiting for them to finish copying!

11. Before the presentation begins, move the overhead projector table or stand as far away form the screen as possible until the focused image almost fills the screen and can be seen easily from the back of the room. Have the first transparency on the screen as participants enter.

12. Stand to the side of the screen while presenting or discussing the transparency information. Use a pen or marker to point on the transparency. Telescoping pointers are available in office supply stores.

13. Turn off the overhead projector when beginning a new topic or when you are finished using it. It will "compete" with other activities. Don't appear attached to the projector; move as you interact with participants.

14. Carry spare blank transparencies in an envelope to write on during the workshop or to make last-minute transparencies.

Speaking Elements and Tips

1. Always check out the room where you will be speaking or conducting a workshop. Walk around it, talking to yourself or to a colleague, finding the dead spots, cold spots, or noisy spots. Keep "traffic lanes" open. Locate wall plugs, thermostat, and light switches. Be able to give directions to the telephones, main lobby, and restrooms. Know who to call for assistance by name (hotel manager, security, banquet manager, or conference manager).

2. Keep a glass of water handy and avoid drinking coffee just before your presentation. A glass of orange juice or twist of lemon will also help if you tend to get dry-mouth.

3. Do not shuffle notes while you are speaking. Create an outline on index cards, study them in advance, then put them away. Talk about what you know and feel comfortable with. Allow transparency outlines to prompt thoughts, or write notes on the frames or protector flaps.

4. Stand among or to the side of the participants rather than at the front of the room occasionally, especially when viewing a transparency, during small group activities, or during a presentation by participants. Don't stand "on top of" or gesture over the heads of participants.

5. Look directly into the audience. Make eye contact with individuals in the audience and hold their gaze while making a point or finishing a sentence. Speaking to "friendly," smiling faces increases your self-confidence and ability to interact with the audience if you are nervous.

6. Allow participants to be involved and interacting more than you are talking or lecturing. Promote active learning, reflection, and processing. Model good wait time in discussions.

7. Take a deep breath if your voice gets shaky.

8. Keep the microphone about 6" from your mouth and speak up, but do not shout. Request a lapel mike for mobility.

Additional Preparation Considerations

Each workshop has its own requirements, but there are some considerations that are common to all.

1. Arrange for a registration table with name tags and felt-tip pens (unless participants already have name tags as part of a larger meeting). Ask participants to print large first names on their tags and to help you read their names, provide computer-printed name tags, or make name table "tents" with half sheets of oak tag. Wear your own name tag.

2. Decide how to distribute materials. Packets or folders of handouts can be assembled in order of use ahead of time. Handouts can be numbered or color-coded for easy reference.

3. Greet people as they arrive, introduce yourself, and socialize a bit to establish rapport.

4. Arrange for a table for browsing resources related to the topic. Promote local and regional publications while modeling a "sponge" activity for filling spare moments with worthwhile activity.

5. Even if you plan to collect evaluations at the end of the workshop, place a clearly marked box or a decorative gift bag the size of the evaluation sheets near the exit door during the last break. Some people will have to leave early and this will allow them to deposit their evaluations as they go. You won't miss any evaluation information. Include time for evaluation in the agenda. Use alternative final and interim evaluation.

6. Check to see who, if anyone, is going to introduce you to the group. Remember that one purpose of the introduction is to establish your credibility. Have a few pertinent items or a brief vita for the introducer to use. If there are no plans for an official introduction, do it yourself as part of a get-acquainted, ice-breaker activity.

7. During small group activities, circulate among the groups to clarify any questions about the tasks, to monitor progress, to gauge timing, to pick up ideas to use in drawing conclusions or for sharing, and to let people know that you value their work. Some may not be comfortable with group work and may need reinforcement and the encouragement to participate effectively. This is not the time of stand by the door and drink a cup of coffee with a friend or colleague. Resist the temptation to become an integral part of any group or to be drawn off- task by a participant engaging you in conversation on another topic.

8. Plan stretch and restroom breaks at appropriate times. If participants get restless, take a quick stretch, lead some movement exercises, and remind them that even adults cannot ignore their physical development. Sometimes a children's movement game or song can be worked in to make a point, such as that young children do not need worksheets to learn concepts such as *Up and down, fast and slow,* or *loud and soft*. (Try the action song, "The Grand Old Duke of York.") Use appropriate tape recordings for follow-me mime activities such as summer sports (golf swing, swimming, etc.) or circus performers (lion tamer, acrobat, etc.)

9. Request facilities, room arrangement, equipment arrangements for breaks, lunch, etc., **in writing** well in advance. Do not leave these preparations to chance or depend on someone else to take care of them. It doesn't hurt to double check with the hotel or conference center on the arrangements, even if they have been made by another.

10. Set high expectations for yourself and the participants. People who expect little usually get little. Remember that achieving 80 percent of a few demanding objectives is far better than attaining 100 percent of numerous insignificant ones. Plan for more than you need, but be flexible and ready to

adjust when the unexpected occurs, such as late starts, schedule changes or higher/lower attendance.

11. Plan when and how to use audiovisuals most effectively and know exactly what to do to switch between A–V equipment and other presentation modes. When viewing clips, advance videotapes before the workshop begins to the desired frame of action. Turn the monitor volume off before turning the videocassette player/recorder off. Know how to use the remote control and stand to the side or back of the room.

12. Assure that all print material is top quality. Attractive, well–prepared handouts, transparencies, and wall charts have a positive influence on participant attitudes and productivity. Number pages for easy reference.

AEL SCHOOL EXCELLENCE WORKSHOP

Presenter's Feedback Form

Directions: Please complete one of these Presenter's Feedback Forms after each use of the AEL workshop training package. Return the completed form to the **Classroom Instruction Program, Appalachia Educational Laboratory, Post Office Box 1348, Charleston, WV 25325**. *Thank you.*

A. Background

1. Date of your workshop: ______
2. Title of your workshop: ______
3. Presenter name: ______
4. Presenter address: ______
5. Sponsor of workshop: ______
6. Location of workshop: ______
7. Number of workshop: ______
8. Target audience: (e.g., teachers, principals, parents, etc.)

B. Delivery

1. Did you make any changes in the suggested activities? Is so, what changes? Describe what you altered. How did the changes work?

2. Please describe the reactions of the participants.

3. What were some of the key questions asked by participants?

____

____

____

4. Do you have any suggestions to improve the workshop package? If yes, please describe these below. Also, please attach any supplemental or new materials.

____

____

____

C. Attachments

1. Agenda: Please attached your workshop agenda.

_______ Yes _______ No

2, Participant List/Roster: Please attach the workshop participant list.

_______ Yes _______ No

3. Changes/New Materials: Please attach any changes or new activities used in your workshop.

_______ Yes _______ No

4. Evaluation Data: Please attach any evaluation data or summaries you compiled for this workshop. Or please send us the raw data to analyze, summarize, and return to you.

_______ Yes _______ No

D. Open Comments

Thank you for improving this and future AEL School Excellence Workshops.

WORKSHOP EVALUATION FORM

Workshop Title: ______________________________

Presenter(s): ______________________________

Your Position: ____________________ Date: __________

Directions: Below are a set of statements about the workshop you just attended. Please *circle* the number on the scale under each statement which comes closest to the way you feel.

1. I feel that the objectives of the workshop were met.

   Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

2. The presenter(s) of the workshop was well prepared.

   Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

3. The presenter(s) allowed enough time for questions and responses.

   Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

4. The workshop met my expectations.

   Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

5. I feel that this program will be useful in my school or district.

   Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

6. I plan to incorporate some of the workshop materials into my own program.

   Strongly Agree 5 4 3 2 1 Strongly Disagree

7. The major strengths of the workshop were:

   ____

   ____

   ____

8. This workshop could have been improved by:

   ____

   ____

   ____

MODULE 8

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How a Staff Development Plan Can Rescue At-Risk Students

Daniel L. Duke

An on-site inservice program that trains teachers how to intervene early in the school year helps prevent many students from "falling through the cracks."

"What does staff development mean to you?"

"Four days a year."

The teacher's response to my question gave me pause. Could it be that inservice for teachers was not always well received? Apparently.

Lessons such as this became commonplace during my year as acting director of staff development for my local school district. Taking advantage of a unique exchange program between the University of Virginia's Curry School of Education and Albemarle County Public Schools, I agreed to assist the district on a half-time basis when its director of staff development took a new job in late August 1990. As someone who had studied and taught about staff development, I harbored a variety of ideas and beliefs and felt I could make a contribution.

My year "in the field," however, wound up profoundly changing my views of staff development. It also led to the development of Student-Based Staff Development (SBSD), a model for assisting teachers to perform their instructional roles more effectively.

The Context for a New Approach

Albemarle County Public Schools was far from a troubled school district desperately seeking new ideas, as it already possessed a more sophisticated staff development system than most districts its size. Despite the district's advantages, those engaged in Albemarle's staff development program had some reason to be concerned. While some efforts—particularly those dealing with reading interventions and computers—had yielded documentable evidence of student gains, the impact on students of many other activities remained unclear.

This uncertainty became a liability when, in the fall of 1990, the recession struck Virginia. An unprecedented state deficit coupled with local taxpayers' anxiety sent school officials scurrying for line items in the budget to pare. Unable to muster hard data to support many staff development initiatives, district personnel looked on helplessly as the allocation was decimated.

Opportunity Amidst Retrenchment

Those of us responsible for teacher growth realized that any attempt to recoup monies for staff development would need to be justified in terms of impacts on students. I was charged with assessing staff development needs and proposing a delivery system for which the district might be held accountable.

One of the most frequent concerns of teachers and administrators involved instruction for at-risk students in regular classroom settings. I reasoned that if staff development could equip regular classroom teachers to deal effectively with at-risk students, additional support might be forthcoming.

The first step was to adopt a simple, straightforward definition of "at risk": any student with a grade of *D* or *F* (or its equivalent) at the end of the first grading period (in October) was considered to be "at risk" of failing for the year. Low grades were known to be highly correlated with poor attendance, behavior problems, and dropping out of school. Basing "at-riskness" on grades also implied a clear measure of accountability. Any staff development that could help teachers

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Duke, D. L. (1992, December/1993, January). How a Staff Development Plan Can Rescue At-Risk Students. *Educational Leadership, 50*(4). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision

Student-Based Staff Development equips teachers with strategies to help struggling students before their academic difficulties have time to escalate.

work with failing students so that they earned passing grades by June would be regarded as effective.[1]

The next step was to determine how to equip regular classroom teachers with strategies that could lead to higher grades. Learning disabilities teachers, Chapter 1 teachers, and other specialists had no lack of intervention strategies, so that was not the problem. As I visited schools and sat in on case conferences to discuss at-risk students, I began to realize that the real problems had to do with organizational factors, interpersonal relations, and attitudes that denied the value of instructional adjustments.

"I gave it my best shot." Some teachers who referred students to case conferences were unprepared to entertain additional suggestions. The act of referral for these teachers signaled that they had exhausted either their repertoire of interventions or their willingness to work on the problems of the student in question.[2] While others in attendance at the conference (fellow teachers, specialists, administrators) might believe the meeting's purpose was to brainstorm ideas that could be useful to referring teachers, the latter regarded the meeting as an occasion to consider alternatives to classroom interventions.

"Who couldn't be successful with a handful of students?" A second problem involved relations between regular and special education teachers. Instead of seeing special education teachers as a treasure trove of tips and insights concerning at-risk students, many regular education teachers saw only low teacher-student ratios, reduced academic expectations, and an abundance of resources. Administrators who tried to promote greater integration of regular and special education services frequently encountered considerable resistance from regular classroom teachers.

"Where's the follow-through?" A third problem concerned school organization and leadership. For case conferences to work, teachers indicated that administrators needed to take an active interest in the process—attending meetings, assigning responsibilities, monitoring progress, and scheduling follow-up sessions to assess progress and adjust interventions. Often, however, the first meeting to discuss an at-risk student was also the last.

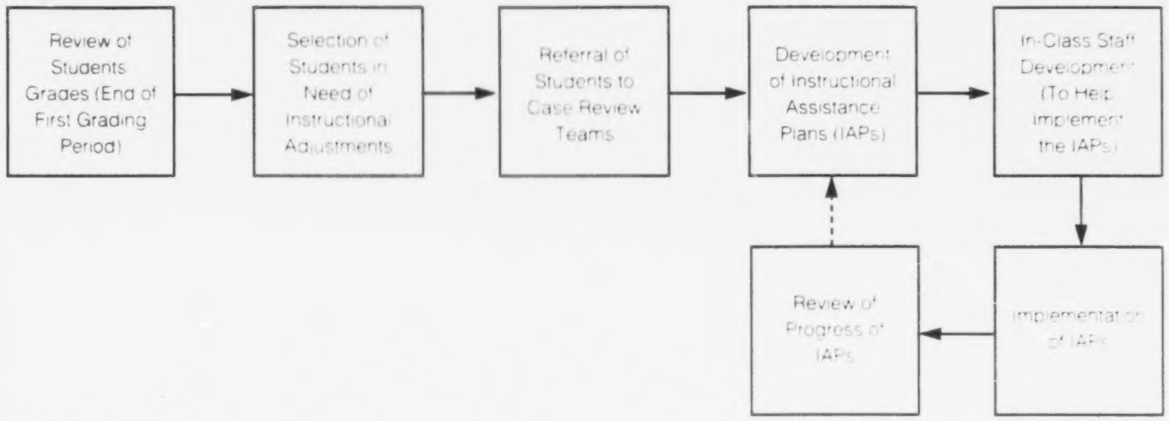
"Training is important, but when?" Many teachers acknowledged that they might benefit from activities that focused on ways to assist at-risk students in regular classroom settings and improve the effectiveness of case conferences. Their major frustration centered on the timing of staff development. Although the district provided a number of days during the school year for staff development, many of them were scheduled during school hours. Unhappy about missing school, teachers wondered why greater use could not be made of the summer. The summer that I became acting director, Albemarle, in fact, had experimented with linking thinking skills training to summer school and found the marriage to be a good one.

How to Help the Neediest Students

Reflecting on my observations, I believed that the school system was most likely to secure financial support for staff development when it could demonstrate direct benefits for the neediest students. The time had come to stop pretending that staff development could effectively address a variety of different needs in the same year. Regular classroom teachers and administrators needed to focus on

Figure 1

Process Model of Student-Based Staff Development


Review of Students Grades (End of First Grading Period)
Selection of Students in Need of Instructional Adjustments
Referral of Students to Case Review Teams
Development of Instructional Assistance Plans (IAPs)
In-Class Staff Development (To Help Implement the IAPs)
Implementation of IAPs
Review of Progress of IAPs

learning how to help students who were experiencing difficulties.

Winning acceptance for such staff development would require accommodating teachers' concerns about the scheduling of inservice activities, ensuring administrative support and follow-through, fostering norms of collegiality and commitment to at-risk students, and demonstrating that instructional interventions could be effective. Our goals were to:

- *Increase the willingness and capability of classroom teachers to address the instructional needs of individual at-risk students.* By experiencing success with one student—rather than being expected to simultaneously address the needs of all at-risk students—teachers might gain the confidence needed to work with others.
- *Utilize the expertise available within the school district and community.* Many teachers and administrators had attended workshops and inservice courses to acquire special instructional and related skills, but they rarely were asked to share this knowledge with their colleagues. In fact, no inventory of trained personnel existed, nor had efforts been made to list resource people in the community.
- *Reduce the numbers of students who (1) are placed in pullout programs, (2) receive low grades, and (3) drop out of school.* We assumed that most teachers were motivated to "make a difference" in the lives of students. The bottom line, this set of goals would require that SBSD be evaluated in terms of its direct impact on students.

To achieve these goals, SBSD focuses on early identification of students experiencing academic problems and speedy delivery of customized training *within individual classrooms.* All staff development is directed at helping participating teachers raise the grades of specific students. After collaborative assessment of strategies that have already been tried and generation of additional interventions, an Instructional Assistance Plan (IAP) is developed. Less formal or complicated than an Individual Education Plan, the IAP is a guide for in-class staff development and follow-up. Figure 1 illustrates the SBSD process.

Many aspects of SBSD represent the conventional wisdom about how best to work with teachers. Not only is the focus of staff development on assisting students, but also teachers collaborate to assess their needs and to share intervention strategies. Other elements of SBSD are relatively new and entail a restructuring of staff development. That teacher training is triggered by student performance during the first grading period is unique. Also somewhat novel is the delivery of inservice training in the classroom of the student experiencing difficulty. Such a system eliminates the disruptive impact of off-campus staff development. Linking training needs to IAPs constitutes an additional departure from standard practice.

How the Model Works

To get an idea of how the model works, imagine that it is late October and the first six weeks' grading period has just ended. The principal, a counselor, and a representative group of regular and special education teachers meet to review printouts of students' grades. They compile a list of students who are failing or performing unsatisfactorily and who are judged to need changes in instruction. They then assign these students to case review teams consisting of teachers, administrators, specialists, and a staff development resource person. Teams meet on a conference day to review previous

Teachers as Student Advocates

Richard Scardamaglia

The 1992-93 school year marks the third anniversary of a very special program in the Rincon Valley Union School District. The Student Advocate Program releases teachers from classroom duties for three to four hours per week to meet with students on a one-on-one basis. The students are sometimes labeled "at-risk," but they can be any child who needs extra attention or a trusted friend to talk to. The advocate's role is simply to be a good listener, a big brother or sister. Often this is enough to help a child through a rough period in his or her life.

With a ratio of 1 counselor per 700 students, our counselors cannot possibly meet all the demands of our student population. While most teachers already supply some of the extra emotional support that our students need in their classrooms, some problems demand more time than a teacher can give in the few minutes before school, between classes, or during recess. Teacher advocates are not intended to take the place of counselors or therapists, although they do receive training in crisis intervention. When serious issues arise, we have clear guidelines for referring the child to the appropriate support person or agency.

Initiated in one school in Rincon Valley, the Student Advocate Program soon spread to all seven elementary schools and has now been adopted in districts throughout Sonoma County, including Santa Rosa City, Sebastopol, and Roseland. After three years, members of our school community—children, parents, and staff alike—agree that the program is an unqualified success. The recipient of Sonoma County's highest program award for 1992, the program meets the needs of all concerned in ways that nothing else has.

Perhaps the greatest praise has come from administrators and teachers in other districts who have asked us to help them develop their own Advocate programs. With the help of *My Teacher, My Advocate*, school districts are learning about the program in states including Arizona, southern California, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Minnesota, New Mexico, New York, Texas, Utah, and Wisconsin. Produced in cooperation with Arthur Mokin Productions, Inc., the video shows the program in action through candid footage and interviews with students, staff, and administrators in Rincon Valley.

The Student Advocate Program is one of those rare ideas that is both simple and inexpensive to implement: about $2,500 per year per school. The beauty of the program is that it capitalizes on the closeness and trust that already exist between students and teachers. ■

Richard Scardamaglia is Superintendent of the Rincon Valley Union School District, 1000, Yulupa Ave., Santa Rosa, CA 95405. To obtain a copy of the 12-page study guide/28-minute video, *My Teacher, My Advocate*, contact Arthur Mokin Productions, Inc., P.O. Box 1866, Santa Rosa, CA 95402; (707) 542-4868. The price is $89 plus $5 postage and handling.

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efforts at intervention and to brainstorm additional ideas. The teams then write an IAP for each student.

Next, the teams determine whether those expected to implement the plan, particularly the referring teacher, desire staff development to implement it. In cases where inservice assistance is requested, the staff development resource person on the team creates a customized inservice program. Inservice typically brings resource people from the school district and cooperating community agencies into the classroom to provide on-site training. In some cases, teachers may be released for a day or two to observe other teachers using promising instructional interventions.

For every IAP, a team member is designated to monitor progress. Unsuccessful plans are modified quickly so that at-risk students are given as great a chance to succeed as possible. Revised plans may necessitate additional staff development.

There is nothing unique about expecting school personnel to confer about how to help struggling students. What's been missing is a direct link between the development of assistance plans for individual students and staff development.[3] SBSD provides this link in a relatively cost-efficient manner by utilizing local experts and delivering training in the classroom. Released time for teacher trainers and per diem payments for other local resource people are the primary costs.

During my year as acting director of staff development, my colleagues and I undertook limited tests of SBSD in several schools.[4] Specifically, we refined the team meeting process, provided awareness workshops for cadres from schools in one of Albemarle's feeder patterns, developed IAPs for several dozen students, and delivered training in behavioral, motivational, reading, and learning disabilities interventions. Roughly half of the students for whom IAPs were developed experienced improvement. Most of those who did not eventually qualified for special education services.

Ingredients for Success

To increase the likelihood that SBSD will succeed, several supporting activities may be useful.

First, districts should compile a directory of local expertise. Besides listing the special skills and knowledge of district personnel, the directory might include similar information about resource people in the community. With such a directory, staff development specialists can match a teacher's needs with a local expert. Only in cases where expertise is unavailable locally would districts make an effort to contact resource people elsewhere.

Cadre training is the second necessary element. The objective is to provide three individuals from each school in the district with systematic

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Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

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training in instructional interventions and related strategies pertinent to the needs of at-risk students. These individuals need not be masters of particular interventions, but they should be competent to make recommendations during case review conferences.

After visiting Pittsburgh (at our assistant superintendent's behest), I became convinced that the best time for cadre training was summer school. Pittsburgh Public Schools makes extensive use of local summer schools for staff development. Teachers and administrators there appreciate the opportunity for sustained training in a school setting that does not take place during the regular school year.

After a series of brainstorming sessions with Albemarle teachers and administrators, a summer school prototype emerged. The summer school would be offered at no cost to students who were experiencing academic difficulties. Teachers trained in various interventions—for example, Reading Recovery, cooperative learning, learning disabilities strategies, HOTS—would be hired to teach summer school classes to help students prepare for the next grade level. These teachers also would train and supervise three to five cadre members from different schools. The presence of cadre members in the class ensures that each at-risk student receives individual attention.

Classes meet in the morning. After lunch, students either go home or attend a recreational program coordinated by the Parks and Recreation Department. Cadre members meet with their supervising teacher to debrief one another after the morning's experiences, receive training, and plan for the following day. Over the course of several summers, cadre members acquire a broad repertoire of interventions, equipping them to provide suggestions during team meetings. They also learn how to conduct productive team meetings and how to develop and assess IAPs.

Albemarle tried a modified version of this summer school with encouraging results, but full implementation is contingent on the district's ability to secure state, federal, or foundation funds or to restore lost staff development funds to the budget.

Staff Development That Delivers

SBSD promises to enhance teacher efficacy by providing regular classroom teachers with a variety of interventions to assist at-risk students. It also helps create a school culture in which teachers and administrators openly discuss instructional issues. It is vital that teachers do not give up on struggling students when conventional practices fail. Often more can be learned from understanding why instruction is not working with certain students than by listening to the "success stories" of outsiders.

SBSD represents a restructuring of staff development. Rather than traditional "large-batch" inservice, the model calls for on-site training to assist individual students. This focus provides a clear basis for assessing the effectiveness of staff development.

which typically has been missing. With a system like SBSD in place, those in charge of staff development can approach the school board with exact figures about:

1. the number of students receiving low grades at the end of the first grading period;
2. the number of these students' teachers who received customized training;
3. the cost of the training (calculated mostly in terms of released time for district employees and per diem payments for other local resource people);
4. the number of target students whose grades and performance improved during the year.

It would be difficult for a school board to cut funds for staff development when presented with a list of actual students who benefited as a result of teacher training.

SBSD also ensures a measure of accountability for parents of at-risk students. While school officials may not be able to guarantee that *all* students will succeed as a result of SBSD, they can guarantee that students experiencing academic difficulties will be identified early in the school year and provided an assistance plan that typically calls for in-class instructional adjustments, rather than referral or reassignment. In most districts, only handicapped students currently are assured such attention.

SBSD serves the needs of at-risk students who may not be eligible for special education—the students often described as "falling through the cracks." At a time when tight money threatens staff development budgets, school districts must be able to demonstrate that inservice dollars directly benefit students most in need of assistance. ■

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[1] Purists complain that a more "objective" measure than teacher-based grades should be used. I believe such criticism assumes that most teachers are unable to make professional judgments about student performance. I reject such an assumption. Besides, students and parents are well aware of the importance of grades in determining school progress.

[2] In a large-scale study of instructional interventions, my colleagues and I found that the likelihood that a teacher would try various interventions was greatest prior to the end of the first grading period. Interventions after students were given a low grade actually decreased in number! See D. L. Duke and B. Gansneder, (1991), "The Identification of Effective Interventions for At-Risk Students," (paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association).

[3] "Consulting teachers" are being used as trainers with increasing frequency to assist regular education teachers with mainstreamed handicapped students, but similar provisions for nonhandicapped students are relatively rare.

[4] The following people played valuable roles in pilot-testing SBSD: Barry Chlebnikow, John English, Sylvia Dorsey-Robinson, Pat Lloyd, Pam Moran, Andy Overstreet, John Lloyd, Bill Banks, Beth Rogers, Diane Tallerico, Carolyn Paige, and Jan Seale.

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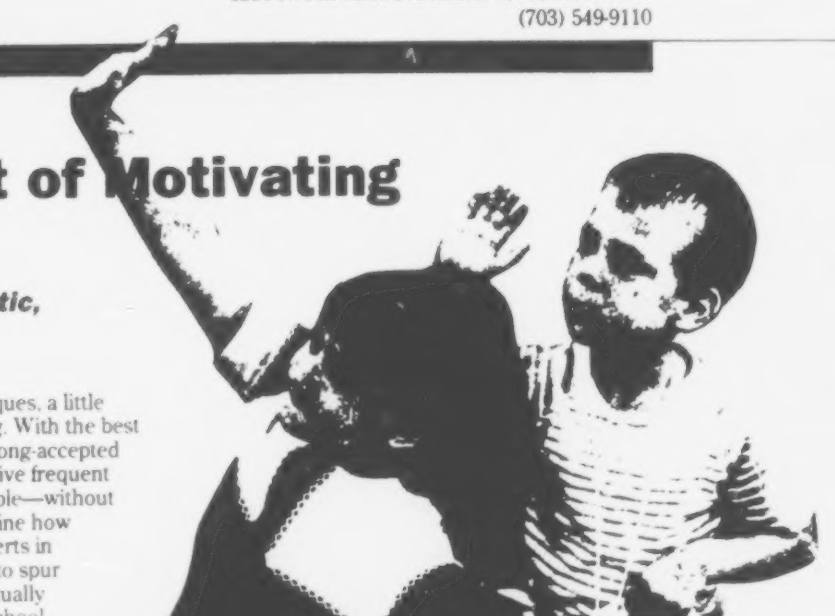

Enid Bloch

The Complex Art of Motivating Students

Conventional Wisdom Is Simplistic, Experts Say

When it comes to motivational techniques, a little knowledge can be a dangerous thing. With the best of intentions, many teachers follow long-accepted precepts—hold high expectations, give frequent praise, offer help, and show sympathy, for example—without accounting for the subtle conditions that determine how well they work, or whether they work at all, experts in motivation warn. In fact, they say, in attempting to spur their students to work harder, some teachers actually decrease students' desire to put forth effort in school.

The issue of motivation has gained prominence, in part because of recent proposals for a national test and for policies that bar students who fail to meet minimal academic requirements from participating in after-school programs or receiving a driver's license. Proponents of such measures believe that students will be more motivated to learn if school success or failure carries more consequences.

These high-stakes policies may be looking more attractive to some because numerous conventional approaches to motivating students have had a limited impact. Two mistaken approaches that teachers often follow are trying to make learning always fun or using extrinsic rewards, says Jere Brophy, co-director of the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University. These approaches have become part of the conventional wisdom, he says, because textbooks used in teacher preparation courses typically base discussions of motivation on the theories of Freud (which imply that learning should be made fun) or Skinner (which imply that learning is not fun so teachers need to use rewards).

Continued on **page 4**

I N S I D E

5 New ASCD panel examines governance issues.

7 What will improve teacher ed? See this month's ISSUE.

Cast Your Ballot

Don't forget to vote for new ASCD officers. You will soon be receiving this year's international election brochure. After reading the brochure, fill out the enclosed ballot with a number 2 pencil and return it to ASCD by **Nov. 15, 1991**. Postage is paid for the return of your ballot.

You'll vote for the following positions: president-elect; one Executive Council member; one Review Council member; and five members-at-large of the Board of Directors. ■

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Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (1991, September). *ASCD Update.* *33*(6), pp. 1, 4-5. Alexandria, VA: Author.

The Complex Art of Motivating Students

Continued from **page 1**

Trying to make learning always fun is impossible and creates a counterproductive mindset in students, Brophy says, while using extrinsic rewards conveys that learning is unpleasant and not to be pursued for its own sake. What teachers should do instead, he advises, is to "continually project certain attitudes": that they know what they want from students and will not allow them to do less than their best, and that learning is challenging but rewarding. Students need to understand the significance of learning, he asserts.

Many teachers also adhere to the conventional wisdom that success—or the lack of it—should be attributed to students' degree of effort, not their ability. Yet this practice has its drawbacks as well, notes Hermine Marshall, associate professor of education at San Francisco State University. "What if the kid *is* trying hard enough" but still not succeeding? she wonders. Chiding these students may cause them to feel frustrated and hopeless.

Need for Strategies

In many cases, Marshall says, teachers should attribute failure not to inability or insufficient effort, but to lack of the right strategy to accomplish the task. Teachers must be very explicit in explaining and modeling the effective use of strategies. "So much goes on in the classroom that is not explicit," she says. Students who are quick or have good models at home catch on, but others may not.

Focusing on strategies is "an attitude that teachers need to develop," Marshall says. She advises that teachers routinely ask students how they came to their answers. This practice has the dual benefit of revealing students' thought processes and conveying that the process as well as the product is important, thus putting the focus on learning rather than on just getting the right answer.

"Hold high expectations"—another piece of conventional wisdom for motivating students—has become a watchword in the movement to raise achievement; and most educators recognize that holding high or low expectations can create a self-fulfilling prophecy. What many educators *don't* realize, however, is that the teacher's behavior is only one of a constellation of school practices and influences that convey expectations to students, says

Continued on **next page**

Teachers must be sensitive to the way students interpret expressions of sympathy and offers of help, experts in motivation say.

Courtesy Fairfax [illegible] Public Schools

How Schools Convey Expectations

Rhona Weinstein of the University of California–Berkeley has identified many aspects of schooling that communicate expectations to students. These factors typically communicate lower expectations to at-risk groups, thereby magnifying the differences in achievement between them and other students. Among these factors are:

- *The curriculum.* Some students receive enriched materials, while others get barren remedial ones. Weinstein recommends that higher-order tasks be allotted to all students.
- *Grouping by ability.* This practice heightens comparisons among students and implies lower expectations for lower-track students.
- *The evaluation system.* This typically conveys that intelligence is stable, global, and distributed on a bell curve.
- *The motivational system.* Educators often rely on a system of rewards and punishments to motivate low achievers, while allowing high achievers to pursue their own interests more often.
- *Locus of responsibility for learning.* Low achievers are typically allowed little input or self-direction, while high achievers are more often given responsibility for their own learning.
- *School-student relationships.* Opportunities for students to gain schoolwide recognition are limited. Typically, only high achievers are encouraged to take on leadership roles, thus making it even more difficult for low achievers to identify with the school. Weinstein recommends multiplying opportunities through such measures as having two rotating casts for a play or having two student governments, one in the fall term and one in the spring. All students should be encouraged to participate. ■

Continued from **preceding page**

Rhona Weinstein, professor of psychology at the University of California–Berkeley (see box, p. 4).

Most of these influences are less overt than what the teacher says and does in the classroom, but are nonetheless powerful. And they tend to convey lower expectations for minority and disadvantaged students. Therefore, beyond repeating that teachers need to be sensitive to the signals they send, educators need to reform the institutional practices that can also send damaging messages, Weinstein urges.

Compassion May Backfire

Motivating students is such a delicate art that even showing compassion may backfire, experts say. Teachers who express sympathy for students who fail may be doing them a disservice, says Sandra Graham, associate professor of educational psychology at the University of California–Los Angeles. This response is natural to most teachers, especially those who teach disadvantaged students, because they are caring people, she notes. However, students typically interpret sympathy over failure to mean that the teacher thinks they are incapable of succeeding—that they have low ability. This belief, of course, colors their view of themselves.

If, on the other hand, the teacher expresses anger at poor performance, students as young as age four typically infer that the teacher thinks they didn't try hard enough. "There's a positive side to anger," Graham says, because it implies "you ought to be doing better." Of course, she points out, teachers should not always react with anger; but they should carefully consider how to react in a given circumstance. "Don't expect compassion to work in every situation," she cautions.

Similarly, praising students must be done with care. Teachers often give low-achieving students a great deal of praise in order to keep them motivated, Graham says. However, when students receive praise for performing a simple task, they generally infer that the teacher thinks they are "really stupid."

Yet another area where some teachers unintentionally go wrong is in offering help, Graham says. When students are struggling with a task and the teacher offers help before being asked for it, the implied message is that the teacher believes they have low ability. Since teachers often give all the help they can to low-achieving students, they may be doing these students more harm than good. "Teachers have to be careful at what point they offer to help kids," she notes.

The bottom line, Graham says, is that educators haven't adequately taken into account how children interpret teachers' behaviors. "Teaching is complex," she stresses, and the area of motivation is full of paradoxes and inconsistencies, calling for especially sensitive work by teachers. ■

—Scott Willis

ASCD Panel to Review Governance, Member Issues

A new ASCD panel with broad oversight is working toward a 1992 deadline for its report and may recommend far-reaching changes in the areas of governance practice, member participation, and current education issues.

The Panel on Governance and Member Participation, formed last year, is taking perhaps the most comprehensive look in ASCD history at some perennial issues: how to increase member participation in ASCD activities, how ASCD can generate attention for and respond quickly and effectively to critical current education issues, and how to retool ASCD's governance operations. The panel, approved last year by the Executive Council, will be guided by ASCD's mission, values, strategic plan, and constitution, but it is not required to use the constitution as a "sacrosanct base," according to Executive Council minutes.

"These discussions sound very familiar," Delmo Della-Dora, chair of the 11-member panel and an ASCD member since 1949, said of the panel's charge. In some ways, discussion of these issues is typical of any democratic institution, although ASCD's growth from a few thousand members to its current 150,000 may have brought the issues into sharper focus, added Della-Dora, who has held a variety of leadership posts within ASCD and served as president in 1975–76. "We have to keep trying to find new answers to these questions."

The panel's formation was influenced by two sources: recent Review Council reports and ASCD's new strategic plan, explains Diane Berreth, ASCD deputy executive director. Recent studies by ASCD's Review Council have raised concerns about the need for greater member participation in ASCD. In addition, the Association's strategic plan for 1990–95 seeks to extend ASCD influence on education policy issues.

The new ASCD panel, which will hold its next meeting this month, has met twice and is currently compiling the results of a series of surveys of ASCD members and staff. The group also closely monitored the 1991 Annual Conference in San Francisco—especially meetings of the Board of Directors and Executive Council and the general ASCD business meeting—to help inform its findings.

Members of the governance panel are: **Delmo Della-Dora** (chair), Hayward, Calif.; **Francis Duffy**, Columbia, Md.; **La Barbara Gragg**, Pontiac, Mich.; **Ed Hall**, Talladega, Ala.; **Corrine Hill**, ASCD president, Salt Lake City, Utah; **Chris Morton**, Yorktown Heights, N.Y.; **Roberta Neuman**, Hampton, N.H.; and **Charles Schwahn**, Custer, S.D. **Diane Berreth** serves as an ex-officio member, as do Past President **Donna Jean Carter** and President-Elect **Stephanie Marshall**.

Della-Dora said the diversity of the group, including the fact that it includes both long-time ASCDers and relative newcomers, is a sign that the Executive Council considers the panel's work important. "I have high hopes that we can make a difference," he added.

Delmo Della-Dora

Anyone wishing to offer the panel their comments or suggestions on these issues should contact ASCD, 1250 N. Pitt St., Alexandria, VA 22314, Attn: Panel on Governance and Member Participation, by **October 15, 1991.** ■

—John O'Neil

Working Harder on Schoolwork

Educators Look to Incentives, Assessments to Boost Student Effort

Widely overlooked in the pressure to diagnose schools' ills and prescribe solutions, some experts believe, is a fundamental truth: school reforms will achieve little unless students are motivated to put more effort into their schoolwork. There is some evidence, however, that more educators are coming to the conclusion that, as Christopher Cross, the U.S. Department of Education's assistant secretary for research and improvement, puts it: "Students need more than opportunities to learn; they need reasons to learn."

The education department, which sponsored a November conference on student motivation and has asked the research centers it funds to examine the topic, is one of several different groups studying ways to create conditions that encourage students to work harder. The Commission on the Skills of the American Workforce has begun to implement a plan for a system of performance assessments through which students would demonstrate their mastery of skills to employers and college officials (see October 1990 *Update*). The Educational Testing Service and the American Business Conference have launched projects to make available to employers a record of participating students' educational achievements and activities. And programs of incentives and sanctions—ranging from free college tuition or guaranteed jobs for disadvantaged pupils to the withholding of driver's licenses from high school dropouts—are gaining in popularity.

> **"Doing well in school is cool. Doing great in school is not."**
>
> *—Bradford Brown, researcher at the University of Wisconsin-Madison*

Experts speaking at the education department conference, concerned about students' apparent lack of effort, cited several troubling indicators. Nearly half of U.S. 8th graders report being bored in school half or most of the time, said Cross. Many students also spend relatively little time on homework and reading versus television or part-time jobs (71 percent of U.S. high school seniors spend one hour or less a night on homework, but 48 percent of them watch three or more hours of television). Many students, particularly those in the general track, are taking less rigorous classes than they might, added Ted Sanders, the education department's undersecretary. "Students, when left to their own devices, appear to take the course of least resistance in the curriculum." And these indicators come amid national and international tests showing U.S. students to be weak on analytical or problem-solving tasks, their general level of competency well below that of some other developed nations.

Although experts disagree on the reasons why many U.S. students are unmotivated to do schoolwork, one common refrain suggests that students who do not plan to apply to top colleges have little incentive to study hard for good grades, since neither employers nor many college admissions officials demand tough courses or top marks. In comparison with pupils from Japan and other nations, U.S. students don't participate in a "high-stakes" system in which failure to achieve can greatly limit a student's options. "They can do almost as little as they choose, without doing harm to their prospects," said Tommy Tomlinson, a senior research associate with the U.S. education department.

What U.S. schools do practice widely is an accommodating system in which "time served and credits accumulated," not hard work and high achievement, lead to promotion and graduation, commented Robert Hampel, a University of Delaware researcher who collaborated with Ted Sizer's Study of High Schools.

Students Just Get By

The sense that mediocre work will suffice is well known to students. While there is a pervasive notion that peer pressure causes some students not to make an effort to achieve, the truth may be slightly more complex: there is pressure in most teen groups to do enough work to get by and to graduate but no more, according to Bradford Brown of the University of Wisconsin–Madison. Brown, part of a research team that surveyed 12,000 high school students in California and Wisconsin, found that students feel pressure to graduate. But that goal can be met by cutting corners and by cheating or cajoling teachers into reducing expectations as easily as by studying hard. And students in many peer groups feel that achieving *too* well could lead to being dismissed as a nerd. "Teens seem to be emphasizing academic achievement, not academic excellence," said Brown. "Doing well in school is cool. Doing great in school is not."

Speakers at the conference said schools can move on several fronts to increase student effort.

One of the most frequently mentioned courses of action is to beef up expectations for all students and minimize tracking. A commonly cited barrier to greater student motivation is an atmosphere of low expectations and a watered-down curriculum—the results of schools' efforts to track students. Students as early as 1st grade, where ability-based reading groups appear, are aware of whether teachers consider

Continued on **page 8**

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Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (1991, January). *ASCD Update*. *33*(1), pp. 6-8. Alexandria, VA: Author.

Issue

Some experts say students' lack of motivation and effort is a primary cause for low achievement in schools. Do you agree? What will make students work harder in school?

Christopher Cross

Motivation is a serious problem. Nearly half of American 8th graders are bored in school half or most of the time. Most of our high school students spend no more than an hour a night on homework.

This casual attitude about schoolwork is in part a reflection of values at home. When we asked 8th graders nationwide how often their parents had talked with them about their schoolwork, half of them said "once or twice" or "not at all." Two times at most—not that week or that month, but during the entire first six months of school!

Motivation must begin at home, and it must be nurtured deliberately in the classroom. Great teachers do not spark student interest by accident. They do it by design.

While teachers and parents are the prime movers, they cannot achieve optimal results without community support. Today, the only reason to excel academically is to get into an elite college or university. That isn't an option for most students.

Our challenge is to provide *all* youngsters with real reasons to work hard at schoolwork. Many businesses, colleges, and other groups recognize that; many have begun offering jobs, college tuition, and other rewards for students who do well in school.

But what else can we do to ensure that all students have real reasons to get serious about learning? Progress toward our national education goals depends on how we answer and act on this question.

Christopher Cross is Assistant Secretary for Research and Improvement, U.S. Dept. of Education.

Janis Gabay

What is often labeled lack of motivation is actually a student's inability to feel any affiliation with what is going on in the classroom. When students have no sense of ownership—when they feel that their contributions or even their attempts do not matter—they have no incentive to participate. Often students see the teacher as someone who is "doing it to them." Hence, students get a sense of control only by actively resisting: by not listening, by not doing homework, and so on—behavior that translates as lack of effort.

Teachers can help their students become self-motivated in a number of ways: by tapping students' prior knowledge; setting forth clear expectations and goals so students know what they are aspiring to in a specific lesson, unit, or semester; conveying to students the difficulty of the challenge but emphasizing the supports the teacher will provide to ensure their success; giving lots of genuine praise for the incremental, tentative steps students take; holding students accountable in a way that includes self-evaluation of their progress; acknowledging each student through a significant nod, a smile, or an encouraging comment (not always in front of the whole class)—especially for that student at risk of "disconnecting"; and by modeling the enthusiasm that teaching and learning engender so students can see a tangible example of self-motivation, commitment, and eff[illegible]

So often students are savvy enough to label themselves as "unmotivated." They need help to learn that motivation does not come from the outside world alone but has as its greatest source that which lies within. Teachers can tap that.

Janis Gabay teaches English at Junipero Serra High School in San Diego, Calif. She is the 1990 National Teacher of the Year.

Don Glines

Youth want to learn and be successful. But many students should not be subjected to the current adult-determined core curriculum and requirements at certain periods of their development.

If we are to resolve the dilemmas of motivation and effort, we must replace the 19th-century concept of school with more appropriate learning systems. This conclusion has been validated by research from the Ohio State University School of the '30s, the Wilson Campus School of Mankato State in the '70s, the Eight Year Study, and the proposals for 21st century futures.

Schools can make a difference by establishing teacher-advisor systems and teaming; allowing K–12 students to select adult mentors; instituting ungraded classes; personalizing and individualizing curriculum and instruction; eliminating failing, report cards, labeling, and ability grouping; introducing reading when students are ready; providing allergy-considered, all-day food service; and offering continuous, year-round opportunities.

Societal, domestic, and genetic factors do influence negative students—but most low achievement is the result of the present structure of education.

Don Glines is director of Educational Futures Projects and a consultant to the California Department of Education in Sacramento.

Steven Landfried

Of course, lack of motivation is partially responsible for the poor performance of too many students in American schools. The more important and underlying question is: *Why* are so many students unmotivated to put more effort into school work?

Frankly, students today have access to a cornucopia of instant gratification. Quick and easy distractions—promoted by the media—are particularly alluring for students already grappling with the changes of adolescence, family upheavals, ambiguous role models, economic uncertainty, and the specter of nuclear and environmental catastrophe. Many older students hold after-school jobs so they can support cars; these jobs take time away from homework. And given the pervasive effects of educational enabling (see *Educational Leadership*, November 1989) and many students' expectation that they can "get by" without much effort, it is hardly surprising that students do not take school work more seriously or give it higher priority.

What will improve students' motivation and performance in school? First, educators and parents must convey to students that school is a place where important work is done; where training for life occurs. Then, educators must make schools appealing by developing curriculums that are challenging, relevant, and involving.

Beyond that, we should not absolve students of the need to work hard and develop self-reliance and discipline. This is not to imply that we need to become neo-fascists, but more adults should say to students: "Here are the weights; we'll coach you on how to lift them better, but *you* have to lift them regularly f[illegible] a long time to build a strong foundation for your future."

Steven Landfried is a social studies teacher currently on leave from Stoughton High School in Stoughton, Wisc., to do educational consulting.

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New from ASCD

ASCD's 1991 Yearbook, *Global Education: From Thought To Action*, edited by Kenneth Tye, is being mailed to all members this month. This powerful plea for the infusion of global perspectives in American schools recognizes the changing world order and the needs of students in a multicultural, multilingual society. The authors present global education as an effective change agent for revitalizing the entire school culture and provide examples of successful global education efforts, curriculum guides, and helpful resources.

Stock no. Y9100. Price: $19.95.

Working Harder on Schoolwork

Continued from **page 6**

them to be of high or low ability, said Rhona Weinstein of the University of California–Berkeley. By segregating students into tracks and offering low-track pupils a thin curriculum, schools send slower students the message that not much is expected of them. Too often, said Weinstein, students respond by meeting that expectation.

Similarly, assessment practices need to be retooled to focus on meeting high standards, not competition among students. The bell-shaped curve of distributed performance on academic tasks has "low expectations for some built in," effectively diminishing the motivation of some students to work hard, said Daniel Resnick, a professor of history at Carnegie Mellon University. He and others suggest that schools institute a series of performance-based assessments and examinations that ask students to display what they've learned over a long period, comparing themselves to a high standard rather than to one another. All students should be helped to reach such high standards, he said.

Ultimately, increasing student motivation will require changes among teachers, parents, and communities, as well as among students themselves. Research by the University of Michigan's Harold Stevenson comparing the United States with Taiwan and Japan has found that Americans tend to downplay the role of effort in the completion of academic work, focusing more on innate ability. Lois Peak, an expert on Japanese education and senior research associate with the Washington Consulting Group, named a variety of ways in which the Japanese stress effort, from having elementary pupils take long hikes in order to show them how far they can go, to discouraging teens from taking part-time jobs that may interfere with schoolwork. Lack of effort among students "is not primarily our children's fault; it's a reflection of the beliefs and values of our society," Peak said. Changing long-established U.S. beliefs about student achievement will take decades. But she said the current interest in student motivation is a positive sign. "Cultural change begins with discussion." ■

—*John O'Neil*

Act on Proposed Resolutions

ASCD's Resolutions Committee meets this month (Jan. 11–12) to review all proposed resolutions suggested by members and affiliates for consideration at ASCD's Annual Conference in San Francisco, Calif., March 16–19, 1991.

The committee, according to its chair, Ed Paak, is charged with the duty of processing all proposals, working with authors to shape their proposals into a standard format, and endorsing those proposals on which the committee believes ASCD members wish to have a position. All resolutions, endorsed or not, are presented to the membership.

Under the guidelines, resolutions proposed after the December 31, 1990 deadline will be considered as statements of concern, not as resolutions, and will be raised at the Annual Business Meeting. First on the agenda for this year's Business Meeting will be resolutions carried over from last year's Annual Conference as old business.

All members are encouraged to help decide whether proposed resolutions become official ASCD positions by attending and participating in both the Open Hearing and the Business Meeting. At the Open Hearing, members may comment on resolutions and make suggestions to the Resolutions Committee prior to final presentation at the Business Meeting. Final decisions on the outcome of resolutions will be made at the Business Meeting on Monday, March 18. ■

ASCD Update

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Developing Leadership for Quality in Education

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Students need positive messages

Bob Lanier, National Basketball Association's National Stay in School Chairman, has noticed a growing sense of apathy among middle-school kids. He believes teachers need to act as positive role models and provide students with positive messages.

When Lanier speaks to young people, he asks them to have *PRIDE* in themselves. "The ***P*** stands for positive mental attitude, having high self-esteem; the ***R*** stands for respect, realizing you must have self-respect in order to gain the respect of others; the ***I*** stands for making intelligent choices when dealing with decisions about drugs and alcohol; the ***D*** represents dreaming dreams and setting goals, understanding the need for both short- and long-term goals; and the ***E*** stands for effort in education, trying to make students understand that it all begins with schools."

Source: *USA Today*, November 3, 1993, 1000 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA 22229, 703/550-5831.

Better Teaching™

Tips & Techniques to Improve Student Learning

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The Expert Teacher

Here's help for struggling students

Here are some strategies to give struggling students a fighting chance. You can make it easier for them to succeed. If your student can't stick to a task:

- **Seat him away** from distractions such as doors, windows or noisy classmates.
- **Present complex questions** as a series of one- or two-step tasks. Ask the child to repeat the directions.
- **Say the child's name** to get and hold her attention for questions or directions.
- **Use concrete** and visual materials.
- **Give the child hints** to identify important information. Say, "This is important."

If your student has trouble organizing time and space:

- **Require a separate notebook** for each subject.
- **Use pictures, visual aids** and manipulatives as much as possible.
- **Give extra time** for copying assignments.
- **Ask for periodic** status reports on long-term assignments.

If your student has trouble dealing with information he hears:

- **Seat him at the front** of the room away from distractions.
- **Present verbal directions** one step at a time. For directions with many steps, *show* her what to do.
- **Avoid giving homework** assignments verbally.
- **Give written**, rather than verbal, tests.

Source: *Learning92*, September 1992, Spring-house Corporation, 1111 Bethlehem Pike, P.O. Box 908, Springhouse, PA 19477, 215/646-8700.

Ideas to Share

Conflict mediation really works

Conflict mediation involves training students to mediate their own disputes. It promotes a win-win situation for all students involved.

Training in peer mediation and conflict resolution can teach kids the art of positive social interaction. Children learn they can become part of the solution.

An example of this practice is at Lakeview Elementary School in Denville, New Jersey. Occasionally students who cannot seem to get along with each other are sent to Principal Jim Clayton's office.

Clayton says he has students focus on their similarities rather than on their differences.

After a "cool down" period in mutual isolation, Clayton brings the combatants together for an assignment to identify 10 things that the two kids have in common.

"When the students have completed their list," Clayton says, "they meet again." He then directs the discussion to reasons that the children should be friends.

Source: James Clayton, Lakeview Elementary School, 44 Cooper Rd., Denville, NJ 07834, 201/366-5336.

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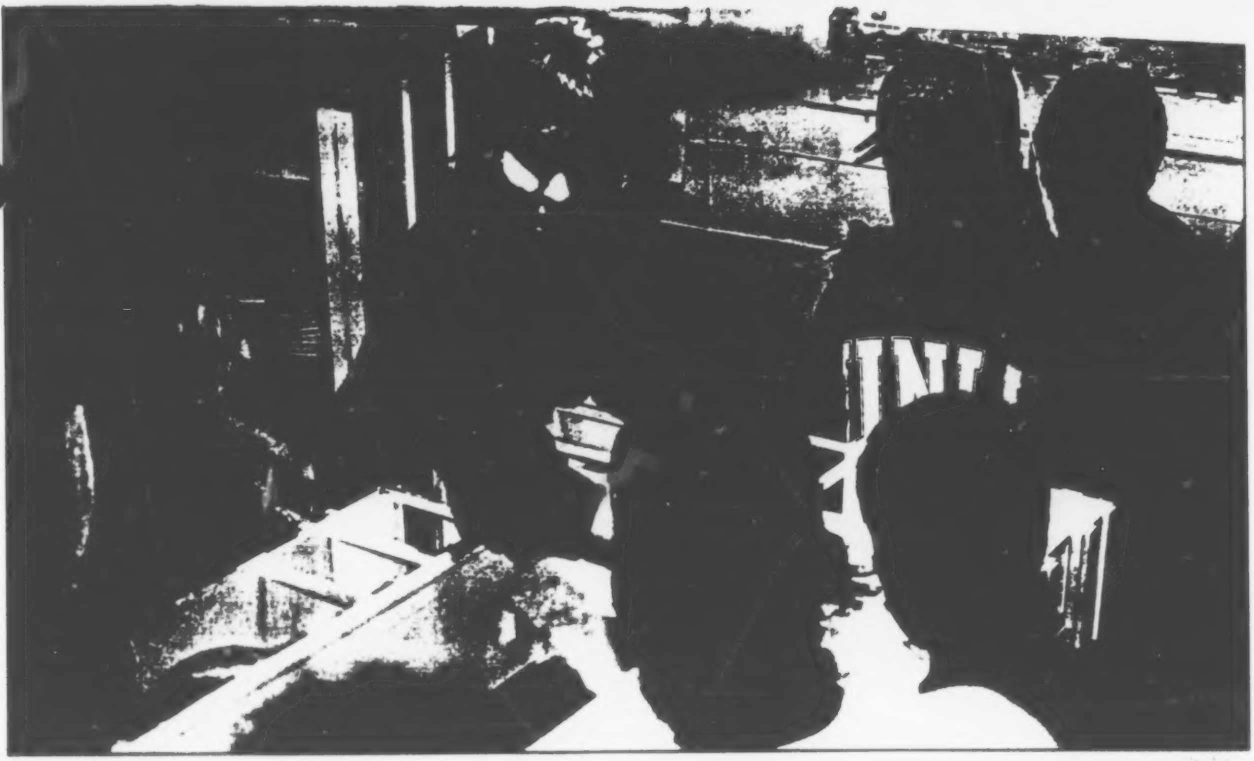

How To Engage Students in Learning

Vito Perrone

To draw students into the depth and complexity of a subject, we must look for topics that relate to students' lives.

To help teachers formulate their own definitions of understanding, I typically ask them about their deepest interest or intellectual passion, something they feel particularly articulate about, are in control of, and are good at. Most teachers are able to define a set of ideas, a theme, or a particular event they say they genuinely understand, not just know about. It is toward such understanding that all teaching should be aimed—toward something students can hold on to beyond the Friday test, the final exam, and school itself.

As part of my research for the Teaching for Understanding Project, I have asked students of all ages and levels of academic success to describe those occasions in educational settings when they were most engaged intellectually. Among the common elements they listed are:

- Students helped define the content.
- Students had time to wonder and to find a particular direction that interested them.
- Topics had a "strange" quality—something common seen in a new way, evoking a "lingering question."
- Teachers permitted—even encouraged—different forms of expression and respected students' views.
- Teachers were passionate about their work. The richest activities were those "invented" by the teachers.
- Students created original and public products; they gained some form of "expertness."
- Students *did* something—participated in a political action, wrote a letter to the editor, worked

> Having a variety of entry points is important for student choice and for engaging students in work they can honor.

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Perrone, V. (1994, February). How to Engage Students in Learning. *Educational Leadership*, *51*(5) pp. 11-13. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

with the homeless.

- Students sensed that the results of their work were not predetermined or fully predictable.

So how do we begin to create a classroom that allows for these experiences?

Finding the Overarching Goals

Most teachers begin their planning by asking themselves, What do I most want my students to take away? What do I pay attention to all of the time, come back to again and again? The answers to these questions help form our *overarching goals*.

Some of these overarching goals may be oriented toward particular skills or habits of mind. For example, among the goals I might set for a secondary school history course are that I want my students to be able to use primary sources, formulate hypotheses and engage in systematic study, be able to handle multiple points of view, be close readers and active writers, and pose and solve problems. At the end of my class, students should be able to develop a historical narrative and understand that history is created by the decisions people make and don't make.

Some goals might be related and recurrent. For example, I would also want students to understand the unfinished nature of American democracy, the ongoing struggle for equity, the connections of past and present, and that each of us is a historian.

I might even put all my goals on the board to assure that my students and I can measure what we do against them. One teacher I have observed who does this regularly asks students to question him about anything they discuss. "What does this have to do with understanding more about ...?"

To help meet my goals, I would make sure that divergent primary sources were available for almost everything we study. Getting materials together would be one of my principal tasks as a teacher. I would also leave room for student choices, for inquiry, for interpretation, for role-playing.

Finding the Essentials

Having outlined goals, I might then consider what content to address within my subject matter by asking, What *one* topic would I *surely pursue?* and What two additional topics or concepts *must* be addressed in this subject area? I could continue this process until I had a fully developed course. In this way I have begun to formulate *generative topics*—those ideas, themes, and issues that provide the depth and variety of perspective that help students develop significant understandings.

Implicit in the formulation of generative topics is a belief that some ideas have more possibilities for engaging students than others. Democracy and revolution in history, evolution in biology, patterns in math or music, and personal identity in literature are generative topics. Questions of fairness and topics that have recurring qualities (such as immigration) are generative. Slavery has more potential as a generative topic than the military events of the Civil War because its effects are still present. Topics related to technologies are generative because they connect to so many aspects of a culture.

Given my goals in the the history course, I would be likely to have units on the Constitution, the Amendments and the Courts, Civil Rights, Women's Suffrage, and industrialization, as well as units that revolve around patterns of immigration, discrimination, violence, and peacemaking.

Insights Through Mapping

As a way to think about a topic's generative potential, I would tend to map the topics that emerge from my questioning (See fig. 1). In general, the bigger the map, the richer the topic. After viewing the map, I would focus on some—but not all—of the ideas. The old idea that it is better to pursue fewer topics more deeply has returned to education. For example, the message of The Coalition of Essential Schools that "less is more" is taking hold in more settings. And groups such as the National Research Council of the American Academy of Sciences also recommends that schools focus on fewer topics.

To choose which of the mapped topics to pursue, I would ask, Which of the topics is most likely to engage my students? Is the topic central to the field of inquiry under study? Is it accessible as well as complex? To the degree that a topic invites questions that students have about the world around them and taps the issues that

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students confront, it has a generative quality.

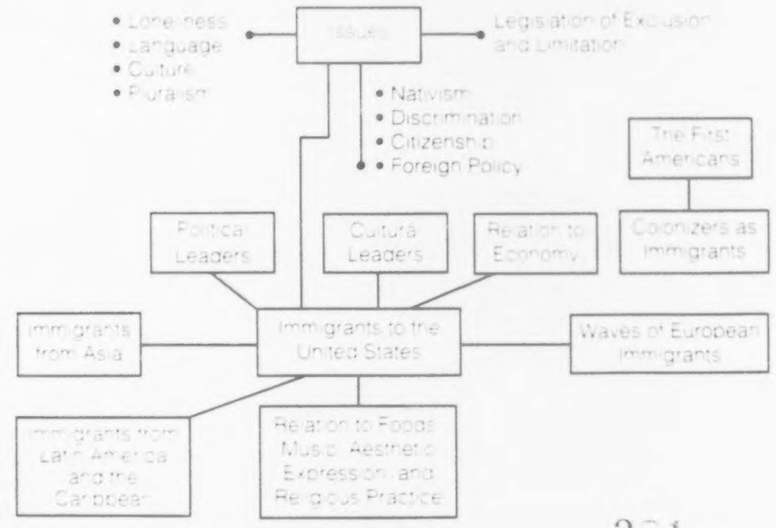
"But how," ask many of the teachers we encounter in our project, "do I interest 28 different students? How do I manage in the face of the unprecedented racial, linguistic, ethnic, and cultural diversity of students?" Mapping the topics provides a graphic representation of the many connecting points within a topic and reveals many different starting points for students. Having a variety of entry points is important for student choice and for engaging students at all levels in work they can honor.

Another concern teachers often raise is how to work within existing district curriculum guides and scope-and-sequence directions. Within a district's scope and sequence, it is possible to generate a topic that engages students' energies and can be pursued with reasonable depth. As an example, a district I know requires a two-week unit on immigration. I can imagine doing the unit using the stories of several individuals, or by studying a single town or a single industry, or by learning family stories across several waves of immigration to see the contrasts and similarities.

In most places, we have found that district guidelines haven't kept teachers from doing what they felt was most important. In an extreme case, several teachers in a southern state with heavy state mandates and tests did understanding-oriented teaching work Monday through Thursday and devoted Friday to what they called "Caesar's work." Such a path might be worth considering.

Figure 1

A Sample Topic Map


Issues
• Loneliness
• Language
• Culture
• Pluralism
Legislation of Exclusion and Limitation
• Nativism
• Discrimination
• Citizenship
• Foreign Policy
The First Americans
Political Leaders
Cultural Leaders
Relation to Economy
Colonizers as Immigrants
Immigrants from Asia
Immigrants to the United States
Waves of European Immigrants
Immigrants from Latin America and the Caribbean
Relation to Foods, Music, Aesthetic Expression, and Religious Practice

A Word on Assessment

For generative topics to help develop students' understanding, *ongoing assessment* is critical. The 1990s' language of assessment is familiar: *authentic assessment, performance assessment, documentation, exhibitions of learning, portfolios, process folios.* All of these practices grow from a belief that much that has stood for learning does not get close enough to students' growth, knowledge, and understandings. Assessment activities that do not inform teaching practice day in and day out are misdirected and wasteful, doubly so if they do not help students to regularly make judgments about their own progress as learners.

Movement toward authentic assessment, performance assessment, and portfolios, however, must include serious reappraisal of the instructional program, the organizational structures, and the purposes that guide curriculum. If coverage remains the goal, performance tasks tend to be too limited. If snippets of knowledge dominate the day-to-day activities rather than longer-term projects that produce real works, portfolios become folders of unmanageable paper. If students are not regularly writing across a variety of topics and in a variety of styles for diverse purposes, then promoting self-evaluation has limited value. Further, if students do not have opportunities to complete work they can honor, performance itself loses its importance.

Powerful ideas, powerful curriculum, and different modes of assessment are linked ideas. Without a growing discourse about curriculum purposes, student understandings, and ways teachers can foster student learning, assessment measures such as portfolios and exhibitions will not have a very long or inspiring history.

We need to assure an empowering education for everyone attending our schools. Our students need to be able to use knowledge, not just know about things. Understanding is about making connections among and between things, about deep and not surface knowledge, and about greater complexity, not simplicity. We cannot continue a process of providing a thoughtful, inquiry-oriented education for some and a narrow skills-based, understanding-poor education for most. We obviously have more to do. ■

Vito Perrone is Director of Teacher Education, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 224 Longfellow Hall, 13 Appian Way, Cambridge, MA 02138.

The Case for Untracking

Anne Wheelock

What does it take to replace tracking with heterogeneous grouping? Successful schools identify nine characteristics.

For years, American schools in pursuit of reform have been caught between two competing demands: mandates for excellence and mandates for equity. Yet, quietly, an increasing number of schools are moving to offer both high-quality education and equal access to knowledge. How? By dismantling unproductive grouping practices that have undermined education for all but a few students. We call these schools "untracking schools."

Since 1990, the Massachusetts Advocacy Center, with the support of the Edna McConnell Clark Foundation, has identified untracking middle schools across the country in an effort to document their success in promoting both excellence and equity for all students. Approximately 900 letters to educators around the country produced some 250 nominations of such schools. We asked each of them to complete a detailed questionnaire. Their responses along with site visits and telephone interviews revealed clues to the *process* of untracking and lessons for others considering alternatives to tracking. What we learned is testimony to the resourcefulness, persistence, passion for excellence, and capacity for risk-taking that characterize the best of our educational leaders.

What does it take to replace a comfortable practice like tracking with alternatives? Educators identify nine ingredients.

A Belief That All Students Can Learn

The direction that untracking takes in a given school evolves from a commitment to the learning of all students at high levels. Untracking schools view reform of grouping practices as a means to an end, not an end in itself. While the *means* of untracking include eliminating separate groups of students categorized by ability and providing equal access to valued knowledge to all students through reshaped curriculum and instruction, the *goal* of untracking is improved learning for all students within democratic school communities.

"Academically, we're working to raise the floor *and* raise the ceiling," notes Karla Deletis, superintendent of schools in Wellesley, Massachusetts. John D'Auria, principal of the Wellesley Middle School, adds:

> If tracking would help us accomplish our goals at this school, then we would use it. But we believe in producing active learners, critical thinkers, and risk-takers, and tracking our students by ability quite simply doesn't allow us to achieve our goals.

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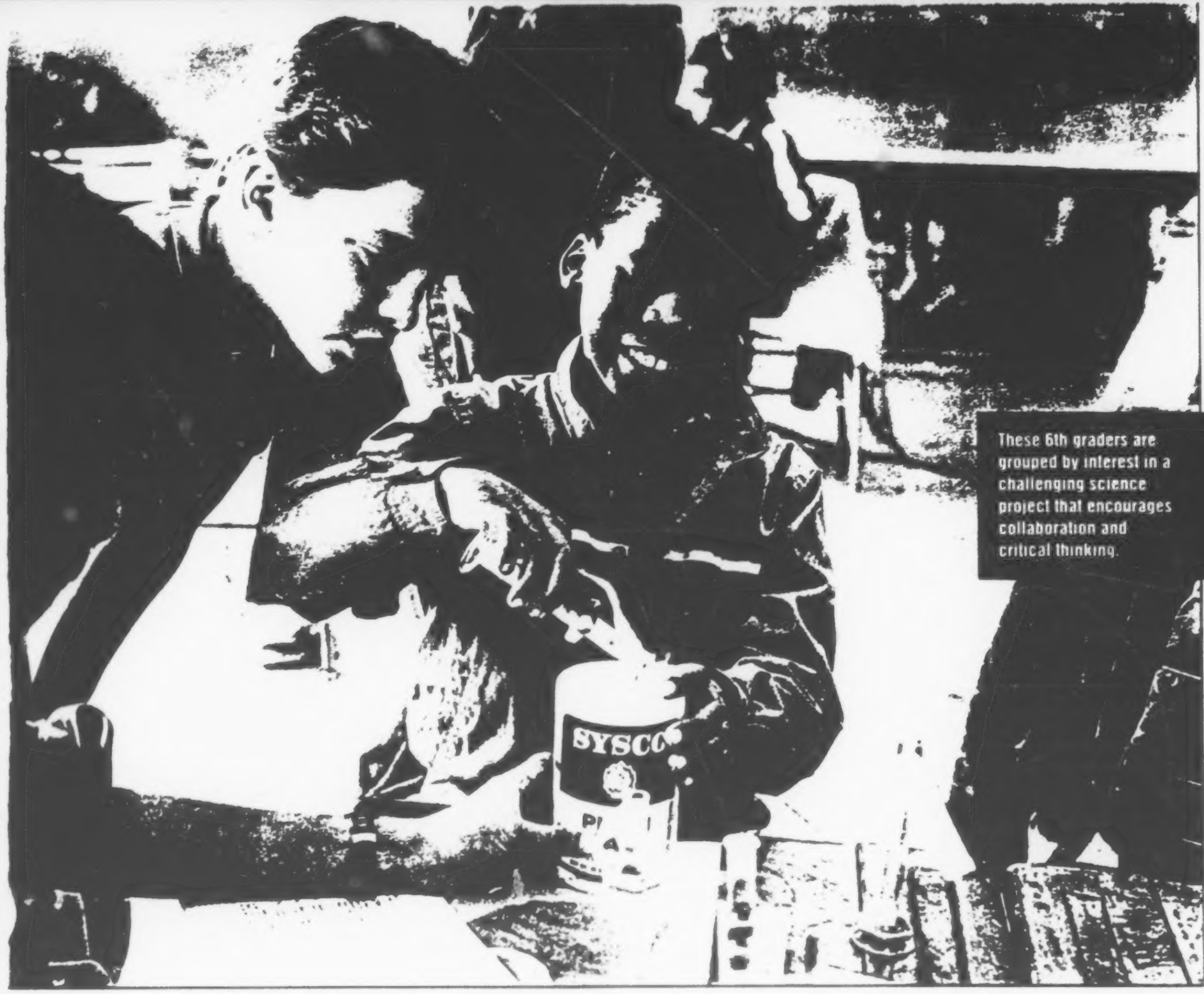
Wheelock, A. (1992, October). The Case for Untracking. *Educational Leadership* 50(2), pp. 6-10. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.



These 6th graders are grouped by interest in a challenging science project that encourages collaboration and critical thinking.

This belief in untracking sustains educators throughout the demanding process of organizational change. As Donald LeMay, principal of Valley Junior High in Carlsbad, California, stresses, "Untracking is a challenging proposition. No one is going to do this if they do not believe it is possible and necessary."

A Belief in Change as a Process

A second characteristic of untracking schools is their orientation to institutional change, not as an event but as a comprehensive process that touches every aspect of school life. While at first blush untracking focuses primarily on the regrouping of students, success is unlikely without reforms in curriculum, instruction, assessment, and counseling that complement the new grouping arrangements.

Classroom reforms that support heterogeneous grouping typically reflect a commitment to "leveling up" rather than "watering down" practice. As John Delaney, principal of the Parker Middle School in Reading, Massachusetts, reports, "When we are selecting a new curriculum or introducing a new teaching approach for heterogeneous classrooms, we select the approach we would traditionally choose for our most facile learners." What Delaney and other educators emphasize is that curriculum and instruction suitable for multi-level groups must draw from the conceptual, inquiry-based curriculums and methodologies often reserved only for those students labeled gifted and talented.

Thus, curriculum and instruction in untracking schools often focus on developing thinking skills in content areas through a variety of interesting learning projects. Sometimes these schools use a curriculum like Philosophy for Children, which might have been reserved for top-track students but that works equally well, perhaps even better, with heterogeneous classes. Sometimes they initiate a curriculum that acknowledges new thinking about multiple intelligences such as *Immigration 1850*, developed at Howard Gardner's Project Zero. Or they might use a curriculum specifically designed for heterogeneous groups, like Foundational Approaches in Science Teaching (FAST), developed at the University of Hawaii. In other cases, teachers design their own curriculum, which is frequently thematically organized, experiential, and oriented to a variety of cultural perspectives.

Looking back on their untracking experiences, principals observe that parents can make or break school change.

High Expectations for All

Third, untracking schools purposefully weave norms of high expectations and inclusion into the entire fabric of school life. These schools avoid retaining students in grade or segregating them through pull-out approaches. Instead, recognizing that some students need second, maybe even third, chances for success, they offer mastery learning, extra periods for review of particular subjects, and extended days or school years for vulnerable students. Rather than assume that only some students need preparation for post-secondary education, these schools counsel all students for the probability that they will seek higher education at some point in their lives.

In addition, since untracking schools define extracurricular activities as sources of learning in their own right, participation is based on students' interests (sometimes reinforced by a contract stipulating attendance and commitment) rather than on selection or eligibility criteria. At Jericho Middle School in New York, for example, students with physical disabilities may be full members of the cheerleading squad. Further, if the number of students trying out for the class play exceeds the number of speaking parts available, the school puts separate productions into rehearsal and assigns those students enrolled in onstage parts in one production to backstage roles in the second. Schools like Jericho distribute scarce resources—donated tickets to community sports and cultural events, adult mentors, opportunities for field trips, access to the computer lab, and the like—fairly so that *all* students can expand their horizons.

In untracking schools, all students, not just a few, are acknowledged for their contributions, progress, and achievement through "Good Citizen Honor Rolls" and postcards sent to *every* parent. Similarly, they try to ensure that high-status roles—student government representatives, office helpers, dispute mediators, school tour guides, hall safety guards, and cross-age tutors—are open to all, including special education students. Finally, in schools with culturally diverse populations, opportunities for learning honor nondominant cultures and languages by incorporating aspects of students' home cultures into all domains of school life—including morning announcements, hallway bulletin boards, thematic curriculum, and two-way language learning.

Such changes in routines reflect a deep commitment to core beliefs about the role of schools in developing intelligence and expanding opportunities for student success. As schools untrack, they play out beliefs that school practices should nurture all dimensions of intelligence rather than define and measure fixed ability. Second, they reveal a commitment to developing students' aspirations rather than circumscribing students' dreams. They also treat students as citizens of a learning community rather than products of an assembly line. Finally, educators in untracking schools act on the belief that persistent effort rather than inborn ability is a precursor to success in life and the basis for lifelong learning.

A Partnership of Leaders and Teachers

Fourth, the relationship between the principal and teachers in untracking schools is critical to their success. In these schools, principals involve a variety of constituents in developing the mission of the school, articulate that mission in a variety of arenas, and ensure that the mission is fulfilled. In doing so, they may have to challenge traditional beliefs about child development and intelligence, nurture alternative belief systems, assess the potential leverage for institutional change, negotiate for resources, and open doors to resources so that teachers can strengthen their own learning.

Just as principals in untracking schools are called on to be risk-takers, they must foster conditions for risk-taking among their staff. They do so by encouraging teachers who try innovative ideas to describe their successes and failures to others, while promoting self-assessment among teachers by temporarily suspending teacher evaluations. These principals themselves must have a thorough knowledge about research on tracking, an understanding of instructional alternatives, and some grounding in organizational change. In addition, they must be able to act politically to address the concerns of all constituent groups. In response to skeptics, they must be ready to respond in a compelling way to questions like, "How do you plan to make sure that my advanced child won't be bored in heterogeneous classes?" and "How can you ensure that my child is not going to be overwhelmed when you mix her in with smarter students?"

At the same time, principals in untracking schools must work with teachers to introduce reform where it really counts: in classroom practice. This requires gauging the readiness of staff for change and working with teachers to identify appropriate professional development approaches, including teacher-directed efforts. As teachers from the Graham and Parks School in Cambridge, Massachusetts, emphasize:

> It's what happens with kids *after* mixed-ability grouping occurs that matters. This must be put into teachers' hands—by empowering them, having them *critically* examine the current program, investigate other schools through visits or reading, and then develop their own ways.

The Value of Parent Involvement

Looking back on their untracking experiences, principals observe that parents can make or break school change. They emphasize the importance of involving parents at an early point in planning and implementing heterogeneous groups.

Some schools educate parents about alternatives to tracking by inviting them to attend classes using new teaching approaches or programs introducing new curriculum. By piloting new approaches and publicly reporting the results, other schools persuade parents that untracking strengthens the mainstream of the school so that all students will master complex material. Still other schools take advantage of a phase-in process to allow parents a choice between heterogeneous and homogeneous grouping until all teachers are prepared to teach all children effectively.

Often the most vocal parents in opposition to heterogeneous grouping are those who expect their children to enter gifted and talented programs. These parents may be politically powerful and sophisticated in countering arguments in favor of heterogeneous grouping. However, they may reconsider their position when they understand that inclusive schooling will offer all students an education that is sometimes reserved only for students labeled gifted.

A Hospitable Policy Context

While some schools are untracking with little encouragement from the formal educational hierarchy, many gain momentum from supportive district- or state-level policies. For example:

- The Massachusetts Department of Education (1990) has not only issued a policy advisory and sponsored professional development programs to encourage alternatives to ability grouping, but has tied discretionary dropout prevention and remedial grant funding to untracking.
- California's Middle Level Partnership program and the Department of Education's report *Caught in the Middle* (1987) have encouraged interdistrict clusters of middle schools to pool resources to initiate and sustain heterogeneous grouping.
- New York's "trainer for trainers model" has created a pool of professionals who offer staff development and technical assistance to schools implementing mixed-level classrooms.
- In Nevada (1990) and in Maryland (1989), policy studies and advisory positions regarding appropriate practices for adolescents suggest that middle-level schools group their students heterogeneously.
- In districts—including Ann Arbor, Michigan, and San Diego, California—central office and school staff have worked with school board members to review and publicize research on tracking. They've also initiated studies of local tracking patterns, resulting in a formal policy and timetable to promote alternatives.

In the absence of a favorable public policy context, many schools forge ahead, drawing support from positions taken by the National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, the National Middle School Association, and the research of Jeannie Oakes (1985) and others. Middle schools especially have found that recommendations for heterogeneous grouping by the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1989) can provoke discussion and generate support for untracking. They also report that these sources give proposed reforms credibility and encourage school decision makers to take risks they might not otherwise take.

A Multi-Year Plan

The complexity of change required for successful heterogeneous grouping requires planning, and many schools acknowledge this by adopting timetables that span three to seven years.

A school's plan may reflect the numerous steps necessary to prepare for untracking: disseminating research about tracking and its alternatives, visiting other schools with heterogeneous classrooms, researching curriculum appropriate for diverse classrooms, and identifying resources for staff development. The plan may also outline a specific timetable for implementing heterogeneous grouping in whatever form the school has chosen—whether flexible grouping, "controlled heterogeneity," grouping for multidimensional intelligence, inclusive integration of students with all levels of disabilities into the school mainstream, multi-language or multi-age grouping.

Productive planning assures those most uncomfortable with change that they will not be forced to change overnight. It can also provide a framework for shaping classroom practices to mirror research findings. As Sandra Caldwell, principal of the Middle School of the Kennebunks in Kennebunkport, Maine, reports, "We question practically everything. We ask whether our practices align with research, and when we find gaps, we work team by team to figure out action plans to close them." In short, untracking schools may have not one, but many, plans for change implemented at different times by different actors.

Purposeful Professional Development

Untracking schools agree that reform cannot take place without focused professional development. Some have engaged in activities that seek to strengthen the school as an organization through goal-setting and team-building exercises. Others begin with a review of "high expectations" teaching strategies, sometimes using the Teacher Expectations, Student Achievement (TESA) program to reduce the potential for differentiated instruction within heterogeneous classrooms. Many schools have introduced all their teachers to research and training in cooperative learning and complex instruction. Some, like Milwaukee's Parkman Middle School, have designated one or more teachers as implementers to assist other teachers in incorporating new techniques into their classrooms. Finally, staff development must also accompany the introduction of any new curriculum—whether it is a packaged one or one designed by teachers.

Phase-In Implementation

Finally, untracking schools recognize that reform does not happen overnight. To the contrary, given the deep changes in school culture, curriculum, and instruction that accompany successful untracking, schools often introduce alternatives in stages. Their strategies differ, depending on such factors as teachers' readiness, parents' concerns, and availability of resources for professional development, curriculum change, or instructional innovation. Whatever the beginning point, most schools understand that the end point is a more-inclusive learning community.

Some untracking schools start by merging the bottom tracks in all or most subject areas into the middle tracks, while providing extra support through co-teaching or additional time for tutoring. Other schools phase in heterogeneous grouping beginning at the lowest grade level and add a grade every year. Still other schools introduce changes department by department, as subject-area teachers identify and prepare to implement new curriculum specifically designed for groups of diverse learners. Finally, schools that have already organized into teams or schools-within-a-school may untrack one team at a time—with the ultimate goal of introducing heterogeneous grouping schoolwide.

Is It Worth It?

While untracking demands focused, purposeful attention over a number of years, seasoned educators tell us that it *is* worth the effort. In untracking schools, achievement is up for "low" and "average" students, while undiminished and sometimes improved for "high" students. Untracking schools cite improvements in discipline, school climate, and teacher morale. As Roene Comack, a teacher at Harding Middle School in Cedar Rapids, Iowa, says, "I've never worked so hard being creative, but I'm also convinced that I'm teaching better." And Sue Galletti, former principal of Islander Middle School in Mercer Island, Washington, speaks for many educators involved in untracking when she concludes:

> What I've *stopped* seeing is very talented, bright children feeling they're not worth a bit of salt because they haven't made it into an elitist program for students labeled "gifted." I'm seeing all kids realize there are lots of kids who can contribute to learning even when what they contribute is different from them.

This is excellence. This is equity. ■

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Using Multiple Intelligences To Set Goals

Launa Ellison

Gardner's theory that we are intelligent in seven ways helps an elementary school meet students' diverse needs.

Students arrive on our doorsteps vastly different from one another.

Some students are self-confident. They are organized, alert, and capable. Some students slump low in their chairs, hoping to survive but feeling defeated.

Some children have many friends. They know how to solve interpersonal problems using "win-win" strategies. They respect others and cooperate. Other students do not.

Some children have a vast knowledge of the world. They have traveled and have benefited from extensive interaction with adults. Other children have only seen the world through the television set.

To meet the needs of such diverse students, our K-8 public school began individual "Goal-Setting Conferences." Over the last 10 years, we have found that goal setting gives credence to the many factors that affect learning, not just the "basic skills." In 1991, we reformatted our goal setting to reflect Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences, a system that suggests all humans can be intelligent in as many as seven ways.

As I began using our new goal-setting form, I sensed that parents had an increased respect for their child's abilities now that they held the status of "intelligence." The child who excelled at drawing was now valued as demonstrating Visual-Spatial Intelligence. The child who made friends easily and worked well in groups became respected for her Interpersonal Intelligence. The intelligence label validated the importance of the skill.

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Ellison, L. (1992, October). Using Multiple Intelligences to Set Goals. *Educational Leadership*, 50(2), pp. 69-72. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

As I began using our new goal-setting form, I sensed that parents had an increased respect for their child's abilities now that they held the status of "intelligence."

September Conferences

We begin our goal setting with conferences in September. These conferences provide me with the opportunity to learn about my students while establishing a warm, open relationship with parents. I encourage parents and students to verbalize what they feel is important to accomplish during the school year. My role during the conference is to listen and to ask questions.

I begin with the student: "Have you thought about your goals for this school year?" Setting goals is a basic, lifelong skill. Goals guide and focus one's energy. Because our students have been involved in Goal-Setting Conferences since kindergarten, they often have very clear opinions regarding their own goals. On the other hand, some do not.

I ask parents, "What is your child really good at? What is important in his life?" I note the child's strengths. I continue, "What is hard for your child? What are you concerned or frustrated with?" Parents are the resident experts on their children. They know a child's history and way of approaching the world. I learn a lot by listening to what is said—and unsaid.

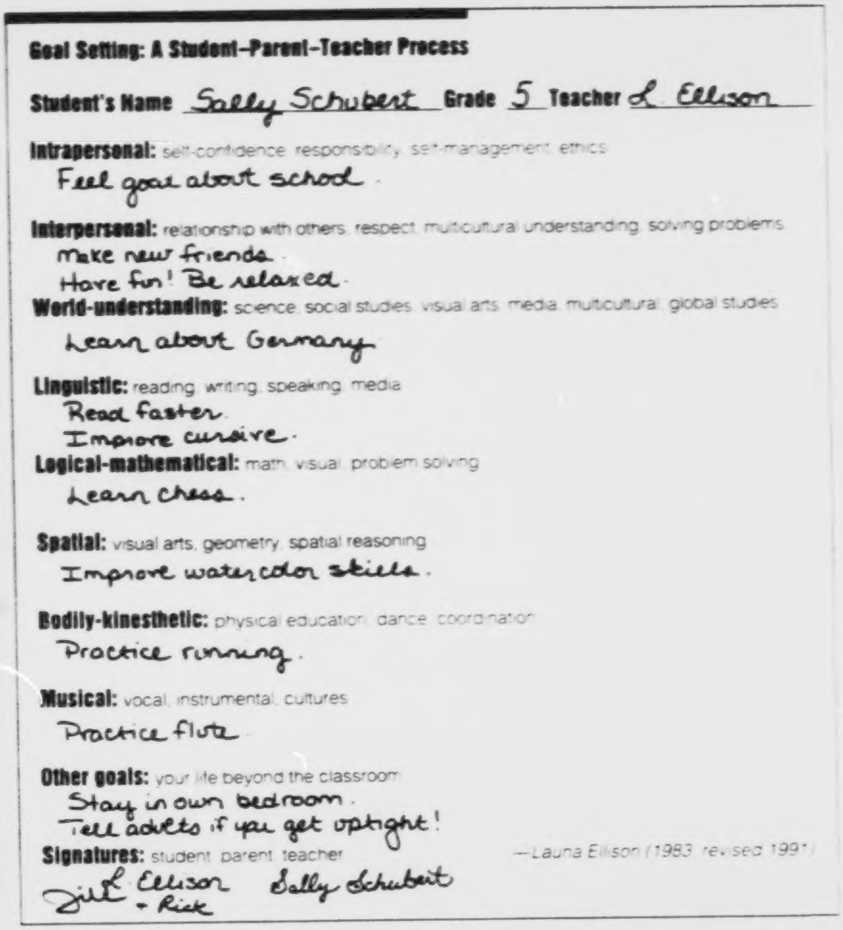
The Goal-Setting Form

Our goal-setting form begins with Intrapersonal Intelligence (the capacity for understanding the self). Students' goals focus on their feelings, confidence, responsibility, and self-management. Intrapersonal Intelligence is crucial for school success. Sue needs to figure out why she gets frustrated. Bonnie's goal is to relax and smile more. A 4th grader wants to "remember what assignments to get done." Andrew's parents want their son to "be proud of your work." Devin's goal is to "ask questions when I don't understand something."

The second goal area relates to Interpersonal Intelligence (the ability to understand others). Most students set goals of "making a lot of new friends," working well in cooperative groups, and solving interpersonal problems immediately rather than letting them fester. One student's goal was to learn the names of his classmates. To help him achieve this goal, I often asked him to pass out papers to the class. Other common goals relate to planning for cross-age mentoring with 1st and 2nd graders and peer tutoring within our classroom.

The conference form continues with goals related to Linguistic Intelligence. One child stated, "I want to be reading chapter books by the end of the year." Another needs to "pay attention to proofreading." A 5th grader wants to write "dynamic reports," and John wants to be faster at cursive writing.

Students tend to have very specific Logical-Mathematical goals. For



Goal Setting: A Student–Parent–Teacher Process

Student's Name Sally Schubert **Grade** 5 **Teacher** L. Ellison

Intrapersonal: self-confidence, responsibility, self-management, ethics
Feel good about school.

Interpersonal: relationship with others, respect, multicultural understanding, solving problems
Make new friends.
Have fun! Be relaxed.

World-understanding: science, social studies, visual arts, media, multicultural, global studies
Learn about Germany

Linguistic: reading, writing, speaking, media
Read faster.
Improve cursive.

Logical-mathematical: math, visual, problem solving
Learn chess.

Spatial: visual arts, geometry, spatial reasoning
Improve watercolor skills.

Bodily-kinesthetic: physical education, dance, coordination
Practice running.

Musical: vocal, instrumental, cultures
Practice flute.

Other goals: your life beyond the classroom
Stay in own bedroom.
Tell adults if you get uptight!

Signatures: student, parent, teacher
Jill + Rick L. Ellison Sally Schubert

—*Launa Ellison (1983, revised 1991)*

instance. "I want to be really good at long division." "I want to feel comfortable with all fractions." "I want to learn negative numbers."

For Visual-Spatial goals, students often aim for achievements in geometry and art. One child wants to "make 3-D constructions." Another wants to "draw cats well" or "draw houses in perspective."

Bodily-Kinesthetic goals often include earning the Presidential Physical Fitness Award, a concrete achievement. One child wants to "run better so I don't get tired." Another hopes to "play hard in gym rather than hanging back."

Students' goals for Musical Intelligence often involve practicing an instrument: "I'm going to practice my flute 20 minutes every day." Another goal is "better cooperation during music class."

Our goal-setting form mentions two goals beyond Gardner's system. The World Understanding goal encompasses social studies and science information: "I want to study whales," or "I want to know all the countries of the world." In a section titled Other Goals in Your Life, students write statements like, "I'm going to keep my room clean," and "I want to be a lunchroom helper."

Checking In

February brings a second round of conferences to review progress toward the original goals. I begin by asking the student for self-evaluation. "How do you feel you are doing on remembering the assignments?" "Do you feel you are learning hard enough math?" "Are you able to work through group problems more than you were earlier in the year?" Our February conference reaffirms, refocuses, and celebrates. I also redirect goal statements, since I now have a better understanding of my student's abilities and learning styles.

Throughout the year, I refer to the concept of multiple intelligences in class. When I read aloud to my students, I discuss the type of intelligence the novel's characters seem to possess. As students create 3-D geometric shapes, I discuss Visual-Spatial Intelligence. I play Native American flute or Spanish guitar music as background during journal or work time, and then I discuss Musical Intelligence. I refer to the wide variety of intelligent behaviors that world cultures value. As students internalize the many forms of intelligent behavior, they broaden their respect for the diversity of abilities within our classroom.

Valuing Goals

While the goal-setting process is important, remembering the goals and consciously working toward success are also crucial. I help students rewrite each of their goals into affirmation statements. In their journals, they write and draw about imagined successes relating to their goals. Two-time Olympic pentathlete Marilyn King describes the process: "To accomplish any goal, you must have a crystal clear image of that goal and keep it uppermost in your mind. We know that by maintaining that image, the 'how-to' steps necessary for the realization of that goal will begin to emerge spontaneously. If you cannot image the goal, the 'how-to' steps will never emerge, and you'll never do it. Clearly the first step to any achievement is to dare to imagine that you can do it" (1988, p. 15).

The goal-setting form is an important part of our student assessment and an important aspect in building a positive relationship with parents. Our documentation of student growth includes portfolios, collections of significant student work, students' successes, comments, and photographs of presentations, plays, and three-dimensional creations. The portfolios contain students' self-evaluations as well as learning style assessments. Drawings, writing, and summative computer printouts on math computational skills are also included. Parents are invited to Achievement Days to examine the portfolios. Not only do parents and children thoroughly enjoy this personal focus time, but parents also get to see how goal setting has affected their children's education.

Individual goal-setting conferences require precious teacher time in September and February, but the benefits significantly outweigh the effort. Goal setting has proved to be an excellent system in our school and has been adopted by others.

Individual goal setting helps us honor student differences and plan for the wide range of diverse needs. And by using Gardner's multiple intelligences, all areas of growth become the domain for school learning and all kinds of excellence are celebrated. ■

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Courting Controversy: How to Build Interdisciplinary Units

Jackie Williams and Terry Deal Reynolds

When teachers build interdisciplinary thematic units around hot local issues, the result, said one student, is "learn, learn, learn."

As 25 6th graders from a small school in an affluent area of Asheville, North Carolina, stepped off the two new school vans, the rural surroundings looked somewhat foreboding. It was an overcast day, and in the dim light, the plain school building before them appeared shabby and in need of repair. The smell reeking from the Pigeon River across the street augmented the dismal atmosphere. And then there was a daunting sign, "Warning: Dioxin."

The Asheville students entered the small country school, which serves 70 children in grades K-8. The visiting students were amazed to see birds flying freely to their nests in the open hallways.

In the classrooms, the visitors met their hosts. At first, both groups of students were reluctant to mix. They sat awkwardly in pairs and small groups. At the teachers' encouragement, the students began to converse shyly, the guests dutifully asking questions and taking notes on their partners' replies.

To break the ice still further, the principal of the school (who also taught 7th and 8th grades) persuaded a few of his students to perform a rap that they had written about their community's problems. The lively beat and stirring message soon led to animated conversation between the two groups of students.

As the 90-minute visit progressed, the children gradually became engrossed in a variety of activities. Some walked along the river with host students. Others chatted in groups on the floor of the classrooms. Three students were fascinated by scrapbooks in the school library. The task-oriented few taped interviews with teachers.

By the end of the unit, the students knew more about this local controversy than many of their well-informed parents and teachers.

On the surface, the visit appeared to be a casual exchange between students from different locales. The young people from Asheville, however, actually learned a great deal about life in a rural Tennessee town. They heard how the lifeblood of the community, the Pigeon River, is contaminated by toxic chemicals, often has an unnatural coffee-like color, and always smells like rotten eggs due to the wastewater discharge from a paper mill 50 miles

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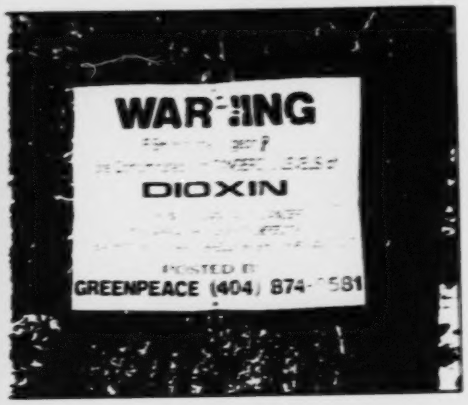
Williams, J. & Reynolds, T. (1993, April). Courting Controversy: How to Build Interdisciplinary Units. *Educational Leadership*, 50(7), pp. 13-15. Alexandria, VA: Association

upstream. On discovering that many of the 600 residents suspect that the flood of pollution is implicated in the cancer-related deaths of loved ones, the students sensed the frustration that stems from years of unsuccessful attempts to get people to listen and care and act. Students also began to grasp the difficulty of influencing the large, powerful paper industry.



Back at their home school the next day, the students eagerly began to write about their experiences. They portrayed the individuals they interviewed, describing not only physical attributes, but personalities and attitudes. They accurately depicted the school, community, and lifestyles encountered. They ventured beyond interview transcripts and observations to interject their own thoughts. Their powerful, moving documentaries revealed a genuine understanding of one side of a complex environmental issue involving many different points of view.

But this assignment required more than clear images and candor. Before the trip, the interviewers had been (1) primed to take complete notes, which would later be organized and summarized; (2) instructed to write with great detail and precision, making sure of all the facts used; and (3) urged to use quotations to emphasize certain points or add interest to their stories.

Integrating Several Subjects

This 6th grade trip to rural Tennessee was not an isolated event, but one of the many hands-on experiences in a 12-week interdisciplinary unit. Designed to make each student an expert on paper making, stream pollution, and the controversy whirling around dumping toxic wastes into a previously scenic river, the unit also prompts students to learn and use important concepts in science, social studies, language arts, and mathematics.

Teachers from each of the four subject areas devoted a great deal of time and effort to planning the unit. When implemented, however, it unfolded so beautifully that it surprised even the most optimistic members of the team, prompted further curriculum development, and led a movement to change the entire middle school program to one organized around interdisciplinary thematic units and team teaching.

Throughout the implementation of the unit, the teachers made a point of not differentiating among the subject areas. During the planning phase, though, each of the teachers represented his or her discipline, and each had two clear-cut responsibilities: to make sure that content and skills from each subject were developed during the unit and to provide suggestions as to how this might be done.

In *science*, the unit activities came to center on river pollution, with a special emphasis on wastewater discharge from pulp and paper mills. A state environmental management official spoke to the students about the facts in the Pigeon River pollution and explained the system used to monitor stream pollution. Prior to their trip, the students practiced stream sampling. During the trip, they compared their own data to results from the state regulatory agencies.

Students heard a former paper industry executive talk about paper making, and then they toured a mill. On their return to school, the students tried making paper. After experimenting for nearly a week, exuberant voices rang through the school: "It worked! We *made* paper!"

At the end of the unit, students completed an extensive written exam. The science teacher said that he had never seen such a thorough grasp of complex scientific concepts in a group of 6th graders.

In *social studies*, the students studied the issue of toxic waste dumping. First, they examined files on the subject in the local library. Thereafter, they followed the news for updates. In the process, they began to understand the political, economic, and social implications of a large industry where jobs, livelihoods, and consumer convenience have to be weighed against the environment, health, and the preservation of natural resources.

In perceiving these trade-offs, students learned that there are many sides to an issue. It also became clear that in order to look at a problem objectively, facts must be disentangled from opinions. Another key revelation was that responsible action can only be taken if citizens are informed. For their part, the students became keenly aware and involved. In fact, by the end of the unit, the students knew more about this local controversy than many of their well-informed parents and teachers.

Meanwhile, the *language arts* teachers jumped at every chance to involve the students in authentic communication. Guest speakers, tours, interviews, and presentations provided wonderful occasions to practice the listening and note-taking necessary to prepare oral and written presentations.

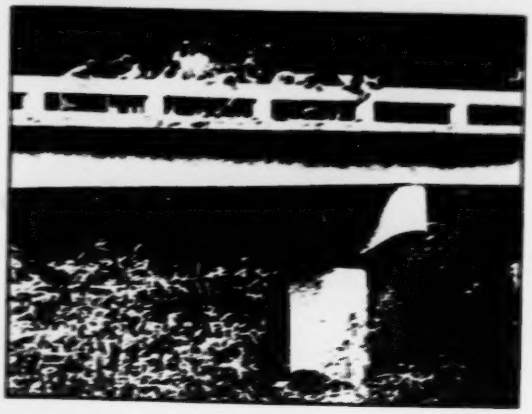
Writing assignments included an exposition called "How to Make Paper," interview write-ups, and position papers.

Reading played a key part in the entire process, too. From newspaper articles, notes, and hand-outs, learners

Far Left: A sign posted on Pigeon River near Hartford Elementary School in rural Tennessee.

Middle: A Carolina Day School student learns firsthand about Pigeon River pollution from her new friend at Hartford School.

Right: Sixth graders from Carolina Day School collect stream samples on Pigeon River just below the point of discharge to compare with data from the state regulatory agencies.



developed their own chronology of important events. Weekly vocabulary lists included paper-making terms, such as *lignin*, *tannin*, and *dioxin*.

Speaking opportunities abounded as well. The 6th graders became quite adept at interviewing techniques, and through dramatic portrayals of fictional characters who might have been involved in the controversy, the students stated their own views and responded to others' opinions. Each student also participated in a dialogue as part of the final examination.

Mathematics skills were acquired and applied during the stream-sampling efforts, since collecting and manipulating the data (on, for instance, stream depth, velocity, and temperature) required computation and the application of mathematical formulas. To help plan the overnight field trip to the paper mill and the rural Tennessee school, students were called upon to develop personal budgets. They also had to manage their money and record their expenses during the trip.

Forming Interdisciplinary Teams

One of the best ways to integrate the curriculum is to pull all of the subject-area teachers together to develop thematic units. The team can look first at the characteristics and needs of their learners—academic, social/emotional, and physical—and then design specific units with clear objectives and appropriate activities tailored to meet the identified needs.

Each teacher on the team contributes to the planning and thus develops a sense of ownership for the unit. The team members share the responsibility for setting up special activities, collecting materials, and contacting community resource people.

One giant hurdle that the interdisciplinary team must clear is the temptation to force integration of the curriculum by stringing existing activities together. The inclination is understandable—any veteran educator has accumulated mounds of teaching materials that save time and effort.

All the same, if team members are to focus on a fresh new theme, they must let go of old, comfortable props. Planning all-new activities may prove tedious and time-consuming, but the ultimate rewards make the effort worthwhile.

Choosing a Theme

The success of an interdisciplinary unit depends on a good choice of themes. For several reasons, we have found a controversial local issue makes a good topic. First, it ignites student interest in ways that other studies can't. Students begin to examine the needs of their own community through previously unexplored sources of information and find many ways to become involved and make contributions. Through interviews of local citizens and leaders, students come to see that no problem is as simple or one-sided as it appears and that few problems have perfect or easy solutions.

In addition, local issues present many ways to bring the community into the classroom; such opportunities include guest speakers, demonstrations, and displays of student research results. Finally, community resources are close—often just a phone call away. Parents, especially, often become so enthused that they offer assistance or just find common ground for talking with their child.

The themes for an effective unit must be relevant and thought-provoking, for if the topic is meaningful for others in the school and community, people will want to hear what the students have to say about it—and nothing motivates like a captivated audience.

And, while it is important for each of the subject-area experts to make sure that activities are included from each discipline, learners, too, can influence decisions about themes or activities. The students might brainstorm ideas and discuss them prior to the teaching team's decision, or the process could work in reverse, with the team generating ideas for the students to discuss and choose.

No Problem-Free Units

The development of an interdisciplinary unit is unlikely to be problem-free. The example that we have described was no exception!

Initially, there were some doubts about the value of such a project. Our team also experienced some typical problems: philosophical differences; scheduling conflicts; perceptions that some members were not doing their fair share of the work; and a harried sense of *too-much-to-do-and-nowhere-near-enough-time-to-do-it.*

Nonetheless, all the members of the team are now convinced that the benefits of this powerful learning experience cannot be matched by any departmentalized teaching approach.

Maybe one of the reasons for the teachers' ultimate commitment to the concept is the way students responded. After the two-day field trip, one student reported back to an administrator. "It was great!" she declared. She had only one complaint. "All we did was learn, learn, learn!" ■

Jackie Williams and **Terry Deal Reynolds** recently taught grades 6 and 7 at the Carolina Day School in Asheville, North Carolina. They are now curriculum consultants who promote teaching language arts through hands-on experiences.

Problem-Based Learning:
As Authentic as It Gets

William Stepien and Shelagh Gallagher

An innovative high school is pioneering ways to engage students in solving problems by having them take on the roles of scientists, doctors, artists, and historians. In addition, the Center for Problem-Based Learning is helping other educators learn these exciting techniques.

Last summer 100 7th and 8th grade students got off buses in front of a chain-link fence where a nuclear warning sign was posted. In front of them was a grass-covered hill where thousands of cubic feet of thorium are buried. They were there to solve the "thorium waste problem."

As part of a week-long Illinois Mathematics and Science Academy (IMSA) summer program, the students were taking the roles of scientists working for the Illinois Nuclear Regulatory Commission. After visiting the West Chicago site, surveying the community, and conducting experiments, they presented their solutions to state government experts, scientists, and community activists.

Not that the "thorium problem" is an easy problem to solve. On the contrary, it is an authentic problem and one fraught with controversy. Scientists do not agree about the health risks posed by the low-level nuclear materials. Activists want all the material moved somewhere else even if the solution bankrupts the company. And some members of the Illinois General Assembly want the thorium removed from the state even though there is no place in the country currently licensed to accept the material. The company believes entombing the thorium at the site is the best solution.

This is just one of the problem-based learning (PBL) units designed by the staffs at the Center for Problem-Based Learning and IMSA to increase students' achievement and motivation. Through problem-based learning, students learn how to use an iterative process of assessing what they know, identifying what they need to know, gathering information, and collaborating on the evaluation of hypotheses in light of the data they have collected. Their teachers act as coaches and tutors: probing findings, hypotheses, and conclusions; sharing their

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Analysis of an exhumed skull may reveal important information about a crime.

thinking when students need a model; and attending to metacognitive growth by way of "time out" discussions on how thinking is progressing.

These investigations of the connectedness and complexity of real-world problems nurture collaboration among learners, provide instructional tasks appropriately challenging for the targeted students, and promote performance assessments based upon the context of each learning situation.

What Is Problem-Based Learning?

Problem-based learning turns instruction topsy-turvy. Students meet an "ill-structured problem" before they receive any instruction. In the place of covering the curriculum, learners probe deeply into issues searching for connections, grappling with complexity, and using knowledge to fashion solutions. As with real problems, students encountering ill-structured problems will not have most of the relevant information needed to solve the problem at the outset. Nor will they know exactly what actions are required for resolution. After they tackle the problem, the definition of the problem may change. And even after they propose a solution, the students will never be sure they have made the right decision. They will have had the experience of having to make the best possible decision based on the information at hand.

They will also have had a stake in the problem. In problem-based learning students assume the roles of scientists, historians, doctors, or others who have a real stake in the proposed problem. Motivation soars because students realize it's their problem. By having a stake, they come to realize that no real-world problem is objective, that every point of view comes with a bias toward interpreting data in a certain way.

Teachers take on new roles in problem-based learning, too. First they act as models, thinking aloud with students and practicing behavior they want their students to use. They familiarize students with metacognitive questions such as, What's going on here? What do we need to know more about? What did we do during the problem that was effective? Then they coax and prompt students to use the questions and take on the responsibility for the problem. As time goes on, students become self-directed learners. To encourage the students' independence, the teachers then fade into the background and assume the role of colleagues on the problem-solving team.

In the process of problem solving, students crisscross a variety of disciplines. They build substantial knowledge bases through increasingly self-directed study. Through collaboration with their classmates, students refine and enlarge what they know, storing their new knowledge in long-term memory in such a way to promote transfer to new problems. As they move toward solutions, they identify conflicting ethical appeals. And when it is time for resolution, they present, justify, and debate solutions, looking for the "best fit." Problem-based learning is apprenticeship for real-life problem solving.

Innovative Programs for Problem-Based Learning

Over the last three years, the Center for Problem-Based Learning at IMSA has been developing innovative programs incorporating problem-based learning into a variety of K-12 settings. As a research and development facility, the Center uses IMSA as a testing ground and also offers its services through partnership with other schools and institutions. Some special programs are funded by various private sector grants, including corporate and foundation donors.

One course developed at IMSA called Science, Society, and the Future is a semester-long elective for seniors that focuses on unresolved science-related social issues. The course is interdisciplinary and taught by a team of teachers, one from science and one from the social sciences. Students learn *exclusively* through the use of ill-structured problems.

One activity has seniors pondering patient files, searching for the cause of pneumonia contracted by 22 residents of a community of 20,000. Taking the roles of public health officials, they will soon discover the chilling fact that the bacterium *L. pneumonphilia*

Not that the "thorium problem" is an easy problem to solve. On the contrary, it is an authentic problem and one fraught with controversy.

(Legionnaires' disease) has been found in the lungs of one of the patients. They will need to ask: What does this new information do to the problem? What is this agent like? What does it do to its hosts?

At the end of another week of investigation, the seniors are highly suspicious that a misting system in the produce section of a local supermarket may be the source of the outbreak. They have set time aside to talk about the situation with the school's biology teachers. Some of the students are consulting the state statutes for clues about the powers they can exert as public health officials. A third group is getting ready for a press conference where they will meet reporters concerned about how long it has taken for the officials to track down the source.

"Post-Hole" Problems

Another way teachers use problem-based learning is through "post-holes." Post-holes are short problems that can be used when teachers don't want to design their entire course around problems but do want to introduce one occasionally. For instance, in a course in German, third-year students arrive in class one day to find a letter from the Nazi Ministry of Propaganda (written in German since all IMSA language classes use immersion). The letter, dated 1938, addresses the students as "Gallery Directors" who must review their art collection and discard that which is *degenerate*. Degenerate art will no longer be tolerated in Germany. The gallery owners—the students—face severe sanctions if they do not weed out paintings, statues, and photographs that are contrary to the vision and purpose of art held by the government officials. The German teacher asks his students: "*Was mussen wir wissen?*" (*What must we know?*)

As the situation unfolds, the gallery owners share what they know about the Nazis but soon recognize that they need to know much more. The teacher mentions sources they can consult about the philosophy of the Nazi movement. IMSA's art teacher visits the gallery to talk about the works of art. Students must then evaluate the entire collection of 20 pieces, each depicted on a separate 35mm slide.

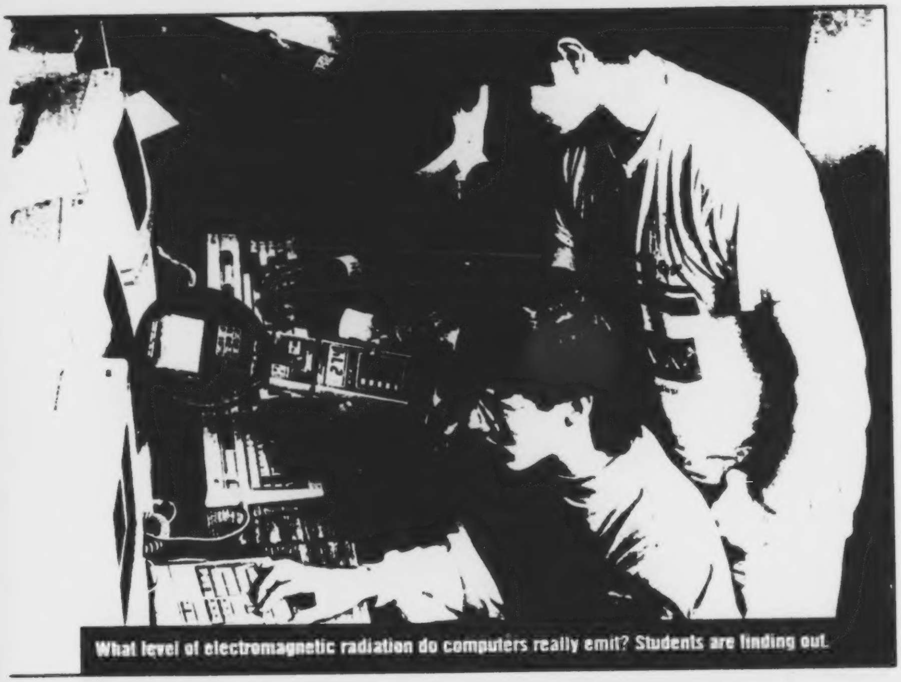
Based upon research into the events of the late 1930s in Germany, the students judge that 10 pieces in the collection might actually be considered degenerate. Now they must ask: What should we do about the 10 items? What penalties might we face if we do not remove them? Is it right for the government to demand this? Is there any way to negotiate with the Nazis? Are the items worth saving in the face of the risk to us?

The Questions Are Key

Teachers help students organize their thinking through problem-based learning. For instance, in American Studies, IMSA sophomores in the role of Directors of the Virginia colony are requested to explain to the King what they are going to do about the fact that colonial Virginia has not produced revenue for the last three years. Under a heading of "What do we know?" on the chalkboard, the students begin to list facts about the settlement of Virginia recalled from previous contact with American history. Not much help here? The teacher starts a new section: "What do we need to know?" The board begins to fill up quickly: Don't we have a charter with the King? What did we promise? What do we get from the Crown in return? Are there other colonies in the New World? How well are they doing? What are they doing to make a profit? Is there contact with natives? What is the contact like? What is life in Virginia like?

As the questions are collected, the teacher prompts new lines of thought: "What are you thinking about? Have you got a hunch about something?" Hypotheses are written on a third section of the board. As the ideas are listed, the teacher probes for the type of information that will help the students decide whether a hypothesis is true, false, or needs refinement.

At the close of each class period,



What level of electromagnetic radiation do computers really emit? Students are finding out.

The direct engagement of students in solving ill-structured problems requires a significant restructuring of what goes on in the classroom.

the students agree on which questions should be considered before the next class meeting. The assignment of questions is completed and students decide whether their textbooks or materials in the library are the best resources to consult.

After a few days, a second letter arrives in class. A member of the King's inner circle warns the directors that the King is becoming extremely concerned. The source suggests the directors must do something—and soon! The students must now use what they know, even if it is incomplete or contains conflicting data, to decide on the nature of their problem. After an acceptable problem statement has been crafted, the students turn their attention to solutions.

Assessment during PBL units takes place through the use of periodic exercises collected as a problem log. The exercises are designed to sample student thinking at different stages and to check on skill development related to information gathering, analysis, and evaluation. The final performance assessment in this American Studies unit involves evaluation of each student's solution package and careful review of a meeting between the King (another teacher) and three of the directors, chosen by lot. No test is given.

Staff Development Needed

Because the direct engagement of students in solving ill-structured problems requires a significant restructuring of what goes on in the classroom, the Center for Problem-Based Learning has begun to offer training in PBL at selected sites around the country. Each partnership involves introductory training of participating school personnel in tutorial teaching strategies and the design of problem-based units. Some partnerships include extensive curriculum development activity.

For example, a grant from the Jacob K. Javits Gifted and Talented Program allowed the Center for Gifted Education at The College of William and Mary to collaborate with teachers, scientists, and Center staff to develop science materials for elementary grades using problem-based learning. Each problem is designed to reveal something about the concept "systems" and uses content material often found in elementary school curriculums.

Social studies and science teachers at DeWitt Clinton High School in the Bronx, New York, are experimenting with the creation of PBL "post-holes" for their required courses. They are asking students with a wide range of abilities to work with ill-structured problems in world history, American history, government, and the sciences.

The *Wall Street Journal's* student edition offers a problem-based case study in each month's issue. Written as a two- or three-class period activity, each problem is created from an article that has recently appeared in the *Wall Street Journal*. The topics range from the spotted owl controversy to the plight of the mentally ill living in homeless shelters across America. A teacher's guide for each problem includes strategies for considering the conflicting ethical appeals in each problem.

With training and appropriate materials, problem-based learning becomes not simply a way to learn problem solving but a way to learn content and skills as well. The problem is the center of problem-based learning, and the learning is as authentic as learning can get! ■

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Designing an Authentic Assessment

Sandra Schnitzer

From an authentic task—which teaches content *and* a complex thinking process—flows an authentic assessment of student performance in advanced biology.

As a high school science teacher, I often posed exam questions that required application of the many facts that students learned. Usually I finished grading the exams feeling quite frustrated. The students didn't seem able to use what they had learned in any novel way or new situation. Why couldn't they do tasks that required them to see relationships, compare, or make decisions?

The answer came to me when I began working with the authentic task assessment model that the Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory (McREL) developed for the Aurora Public Schools. What students had learned was missing a crucial piece. I had not taught them the thinking processes that they needed in order to use the knowledge that they had acquired.

The McREL assessment model identifies 14 complex thinking processes: comparison, classification, structural analysis, supported induction, supported deduction, error analysis, constructing support, extending, decision making, investigation, systems analysis, problem solving, experimental inquiry, and invention. These complex thinking tasks can be integrated into a range of authentic tasks and assessments of performance on those tasks.

The timing of my discovery was opportune. The Aurora school district, like many others across the country, had been looking for ways to restructure the curriculum so that it would present more challenging and engaging tasks to the students. Fortunately, the district was able to provide funds to underwrite time for teachers to plan and work collaboratively. Pairs of science teachers at Gateway High School were released from the classroom for two days to design authentic tasks and assessments in their content areas.

My partner, Bob Legge, and I worked together to design an assessment task that would integrate one of the McREL thinking processes into Bob's advanced biology class. Since the class was ready to begin studying the uses and regulation of biotechnology, we set out to design a task that would allow students to demonstrate their biotechnological knowledge and simultaneously incorporate a complex thinking process.

> What students had learned was missing a crucial piece. I had not taught them the thinking processes that they needed in order to use the knowledge that they had acquired.

Decision making seemed to be the most appropriate thinking process to concentrate on, because it is a way to resolve complex issues that have no clear-cut answer, the very kind of task encountered in determining the uses, possibilities, and limitations of biotechnological applications.

Bob and I recognized that students should be given opportunities to practice with the form of an assessment before it is used. In other words, they need time to practice the decision-making process without also having to attend to content. Consequently, we had students practice making and using a decision matrix that would determine what to do about a hypothetical American hostage situation in Iran (Iozzi and Bastardo 1990). The students were to advise the President on a course of action that would best resolve a situation in which passengers on an airliner were seized as hostages.

A decision-making task requires students to evaluate a list of alternatives that are scored using carefully weighted criteria. In our practice run, students' choice of alternatives (that is, their decision) was based on the alternatives and criteria that we provided. The alternatives to be considered included military action, economic sanctions, a blockade, doing nothing, giving in, and diplomatic intervention.

The selection criteria included hostages' safety, public opinion, world opinion, economic repercussions, potential for war, and more kidnapping (Iozzi and Bastardo 1990). With teacher guidance, the students determined the weighting factors by deciding which of the criteria were

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most important to a good decision (the weighting factors are proportions of 100 percent; they add up to 1). Students also give each alternative a score, based on the extent to which each choice possessed each criterion. Each score was then multiplied by the weighting factor to obtain a final total score for each alternative. The alternative with the highest total is the decision. These scores were based on previous student knowledge (but, in later assessments, on their research and reading).

The students then began developing the matrix that would determine the best advice to give the President (see fig. 1). The first decision reached was to do nothing. The students were very surprised.

After much discussion, the students decided that the original weight that they had assigned to the world opinion criterion was not heavy enough. A change in the weight of that criteria resulted in a decision to use military action. The students' alteration illustrates an interesting feature of making decisions by using a matrix, and that is that by changing the weights assigned to the chosen criteria, students can see the immediate effect on the decision.

Once familiar with the process, the students were ready to apply their decision-making model to the content in biology. In preparation for this authentic task, the class read and discussed material on genetic engineering and biotechnology, including the late Judge John Sirica's decision to prohibit experiments that would release engineered organisms into the environment. The issue presented to the students was, who should regulate and monitor biotechnology—society or the scientific community (Iozzi and Bastardo 1990)?

> We set out to design a task that would allow students to demonstrate their biotechnological knowledge and simultaneously deploy a complex thinking process.

Working in cooperative groups, the students determined the alternatives, the criteria, the weighting factors, and the final decision scores. A decision was generated, and as a group, students shared their decisions orally with the rest of the class.

Now that the students had practiced on two types of decisions, they were ready to begin the authentic assessment. It would allow them to demonstrate their decision-making skills and their ability to integrate and apply these skills in new situations. Students were allowed to choose among several controversial issues in biology. The issues included *in vitro* fertilization, alternatives to animal experimentation, and organ donation.

We provided students with initial background information on each issue (the data were taken from *Taking Sides: Clashing Views on Controversial Bio-Ethical Issues*, Levine 1990). Students cooperated in gathering further information about their issue. We encouraged them to seek information from a variety of sources.

In the assessment, students were to develop a decision-making matrix using criteria, alternatives, and weighting factors to generate scores based on the information that they had gathered. We also asked the students to prepare a visual representation of their decision. It was to be used as groups presented their issue and decision to the class.

To help students develop their representation, we showed them how to change their decision matrix into a Microsoftworks computer spreadsheet. A student-generated spreadsheet on the issue of organ donation lists the alternatives considered: (1) leave the laws as they are currently written (do nothing), (2) harvest organs only with prior permission, and (3) stop harvesting organs entirely. The criteria for making the decision were: (1) improvement of lives, (2) prevention of deaths, and (3) ethical beliefs.

The students' conclusion was interesting and noteworthy. They decided to let the laws governing the removal of organs stand as they are presently written.

We also instructed the students on the computer procedure for converting spreadsheet information into a graph. Once the spreadsheet and graph data were entered, students were able to print both the spreadsheet and graph on a transparency. The students thus created a professional-looking visual aid to help them lead the class discussion about their issue.

The Assessment of Decision Making

From the outset of this series of activi-

Instead of just collecting and sharing factual information with their classmates, students needed to synthesize what they had learned, integrate it into the form of a decision, and then justify that decision to others.

ties, students knew that their performance would be assessed according to a model developed by McREL for each of the 14 complex thinking processes. Each of the processes has assessment criteria, which describe the characteristics of someone who uses the thinking process effectively. We changed McREL's wording about decision makers to make the criteria more specific to the task. Our three assessment criteria ultimately were:

- Did the students' final recommended decision match their chosen criteria?
- Did the students apply accurate and important biological information to the process of decision making?
- Did the students select appropriate and important criteria with which to assess the alternatives?

The McREL assessment model also specifies a four-step rubric. It describes observable characteristics by which student performance can be gauged against each of the assessment criteria (Redding 1992). For example, our final criterion for the process of decision making read, "Did the student select appropriate and important criteria with which to assess the alternatives?" The rubric for this criterion reads:

> *Level 4* The student clearly and completely identified the criteria by which the alternatives were assessed. The criteria were presented in detail and reflected an unusually thorough understanding and concern for the repercussions of the decision.
>
> *Level 3* The student clearly identified the alternatives to be assessed. With no significant exceptions, the criteria were appropriate to the alternatives and important to the decision task.
>
> *Level 2* The student correctly identified the principal criteria by which the alternatives would be assessed. Some criteria might be omitted, or included

Figure 1

Hostage Decision-Making Matrix

Alternatives \ Selection Criteria Weighting Factors		Hostage Safety .28	Public Opinion .14	World Opinion .05	Econmic Repercussions .10	Potential for War .19	More Kidnapping .24	TOTAL
Military Action	a score of **X**	1	7	4	1	5	8	
	=	28	98	20	10	95	1.92	4.43
Economic Sanctions	a score of **X**	4	7	6	2	2	5	
	=	1.12	98	3	2	38	1.2	4.18
Blockade	a score of **X**	4	7	6	2	5	5	
	=	1.12	98	3	2	95	1.25	4.80
Do Nothing	a score of **X**	7	3	5	8	8	5	
	=	1.96	42	25	8	1.52	1.2	6.15
Give In	a score of **X**	9	3	5	8	8	1	
	=	2.52	42	25	8	1.52	24	5.75
Intervention	a score of **X**	5	5	5	5	5	5	
	=	1.4	7	25	5	95	1.2	5.00

criteria might not be important factors for consideration or entirely appropriate for the decision.

Level 1: The student specified criteria that were not appropriate for the selected alternatives or of importance to the decision.

Our students knew that level 3 is the standard, and all work is expected to reach that quality. Level 4 is exemplary work, and we encouraged students to make that their goal. Both Bob and I assessed the results, but students also used the McREL rubrics to assess their own performances.

What Is the Difference?

This authentic task and the assessment of it was an excellent way for students to both learn information *and* grasp the relationships among the data. Instead of just collecting and sharing factual information with their classmates, students needed to synthesize what they had learned, integrate it into the form of a decision, and then justify that decision to others. The students also learned a great deal about the process of making decisions with no clear-cut answers.

The conversations that took place during cooperative learning were lively. They engaged every student. Furthermore, students took responsibility for some of their own learning, especially when they orchestrated the class discussion.

The preparation for the assessment seemed to work very well. The pre-assessment activities provided students with all the skills and experiences needed to perform successfully in the assessment. Students also knew all of the assessment criteria right from the start, so they had a clear, stationary target to aim at.

Students were able to transfer their learning, too. A few days after the student presentations, a representative from the Aurora Water Department was a guest speaker in the class. She presented material on how water was delivered to the city. Then she asked the students what they thought her real purpose was in visiting the class that day. Confidently, a student answered, "To talk about making decisions about water use." The surprise on the face of the guest speaker was apparent.

The animation of the students was even more unmistakable. Eagerly, they helped the guest speaker generate a list of alternate ways to supply Aurora's growing demand for water and a list of criteria by which to judge the appropriateness of each alternative.

Finally, this assessment procedure exposed students to a new way to use technology, namely creating a high-quality product to use in a classroom presentation. Though many students knew about word processing programs, none were familiar with either the spreadsheet or graphing applications.

In short, we think that authentic tasks and assessments, one such as we have described, will help our students graduate better equipped to handle the complexities and uncertainties of the 21st century. ■

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Preventing Early School Failure: What Works?

Robert E. Slavin, Nancy L. Karweit, and Barbara A. Wasik

From early childhood interventions to nongraded primary programs and one-to-one tutoring, research clearly shows that we know how to provide students the skills and knowledge they need to succeed.

Once upon a time, a town was having a serious health problem. Approximately 30 percent of its children were coming down with typhoid and other diseases because of contaminated drinking water. The town council allocated millions to medical care for the victims, yet some of them died or were permanently disabled. One day, an engineer proposed to the town council that they install a water treatment plant, which would prevent virtually all cases of the disease. "Ridiculous!" fumed the mayor. "We can't afford it!"

The engineer pointed out that they were already paying millions for treatment of a preventable disease.

"But if we bought a water treatment plant," the mayor responded, "how could we afford to treat the children who already have the disease?"

"Besides," added a councilman, "most of our children don't get the disease. The money we spend now is targeted to exactly the children who need it!" After a brief debate, the town council rejected the engineer's suggestion.

The town council's decision in this parable is, of course, a foolish one. From a purely economic point of view, the costs of providing medical services to large numbers of children over a long time were greater than the cost of the water treatment plant. More important, children were being permanently damaged by a preventable disease.

In education, we have policies that are all too much like those of the foolish town council. A substantial number of children fail to learn to read adequately in the early grades. Many are retained, assigned to special education, or maintained for many years in remedial programs. The financial costs of providing long-term remedial services after a student has already failed are staggering, but even more tragic are the consequences for individual children who fail so early.

Despite some improvements and a growing acceptance of the idea that prevention and early intervention are preferable to remediation, programs (and funding) for at-risk students overwhelmingly emphasize remediation. The unspoken assumption behind such policies is that substantial numbers of students—due to low IQs, impoverished family backgrounds, or other factors—are unlikely to be able to keep up with their classmates and will therefore need long-term support services to keep them from falling further behind.

If early school failure were, in fact, unavoidable, we might have a rationale for continuing with the policies we have now. But a growing body of evidence refutes the proposition that school failure is inevitable for any but the most retarded children. Further, the programs and practices that, either alone or in combination, have the strongest evidence of effectiveness for preventing school failure for virtually all students are currently available and replicable. None of them is exotic or radical.

In the following pages, we summarize the conclusions of our major, federally funded review (Slavin et al., in press) on the effects of programs intended to prevent early school failure. Our review focused on a variety of indicators of success and failure. Most early intervention programs involving students from birth to age 4 have used IQ, language proficiency, and other measures that predict school success and their outcomes. We reported these outcomes, but placed greater emphasis on measures of actual school success or failure: reading performance, retention,

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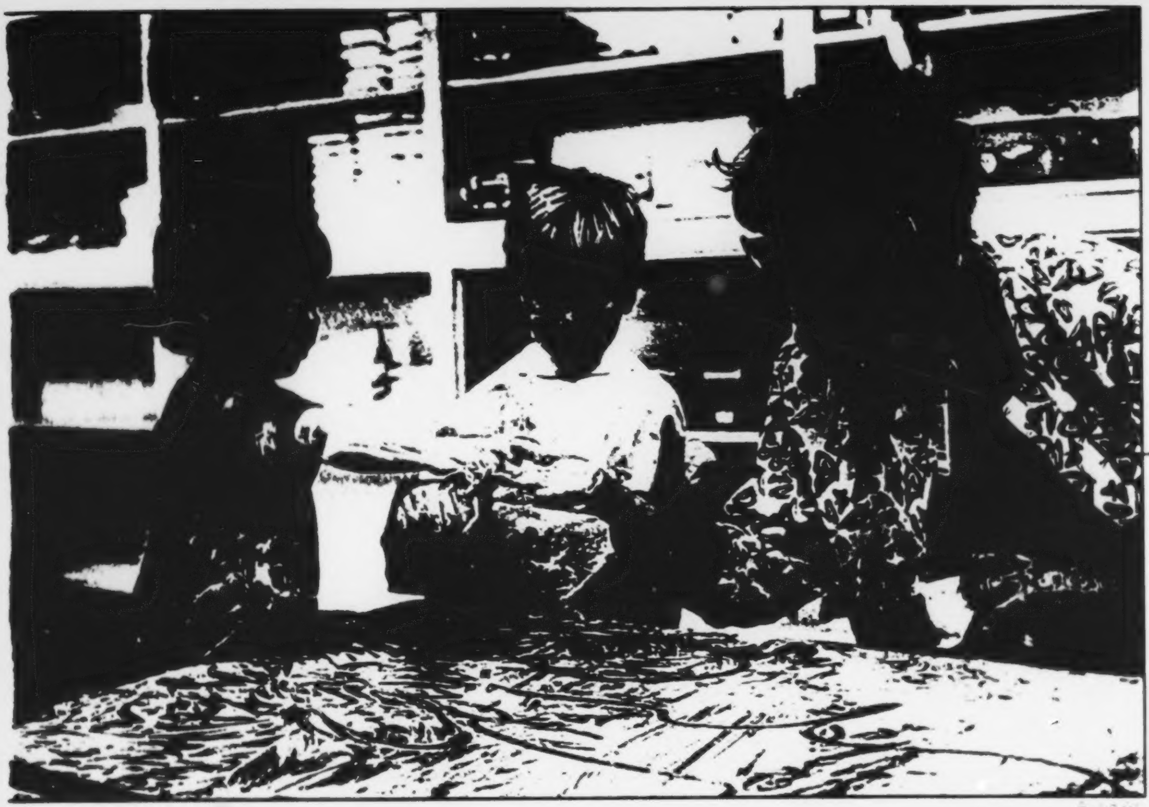
Slavin, R. E., Karweit, N. L., & Wasik, B. A. (1992, December 1993, January). Preventing Early School Failure: What Works? *Educational Leadership, 50*(4), pp. 10-18. Alexandria, VA: **Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.**



The lasting benefits of preschool experiences are seen in the reduced number of retentions, special education placements, delinquents, and dropouts.

and placement in special education. Whenever possible, we emphasized long-term effects of early interventions.

We reviewed several types of early schooling programs. One important common feature of these programs is that they are expensive, and most are of similar orders of magnitude of cost. For example, reducing class size by half (from 30 to 15, for instance) involves hiring an additional certified teacher for each class. Yet this same teacher could teach a preschool class, could be added to the kindergarten staff to enable a school to have full-day kindergarten, or could tutor about 15 low-achieving 1st graders 20 minutes per day. Retention or provision of extra-year programs for kindergartners or 1st graders adds about $4,000, or one year's per-pupil cost per child. The costs of Writing to Read and other integrated computer-assisted-instruction programs require at least one additional aide per school plus initial and continuing costs roughly comparable to the cost of additional certified teachers. The popularity of all these programs indicates that we are willing to spend money to prevent early school failure, but which investments pay off?

The Reading Link

The consequences of failing to learn to read in the early grades are severe. Longitudinal studies find that disadvantaged 3rd graders who have failed one or more grades and are reading below grade level are extremely unlikely to complete high school (Lloyd 1978, Kelly et al. 1964). Remedial programs such as Chapter 1 have few if any effects on students above the 3rd grade level (see Kennedy et al. 1986). Many children are referred to special education programs largely on the basis of reading failure, and then remain in special education for many years, often for their entire school careers.

Almost all children, regardless of social class or other factors, enter 1st grade full of enthusiasm, motivation, and self-confidence, fully expecting to succeed in school. By the end of 1st grade, many of these students have already discovered that their initial high expectations are not coming true, and they have begun to see school as punishing and demeaning. Trying to remediate reading failure later on is very difficult because students who have failed are likely to be unmotivated, with poor self-concepts as learners. They are anxious about reading, and they hate it. Reform is needed at all levels of education, but no goal of reform is as important as seeing that all children start off their school careers with success, confidence, and a firm foundation in reading.

Success in the early grades does not guarantee success throughout the school years and beyond, but failure in the early grades does virtually guarantee failure in later schooling. If there is a chance to prevent the negative spiral that begins with early

reading failure from the start, then it seems necessary to do so. Even very expensive early interventions can be justified on cost-effectiveness grounds alone if they reduce the need for later and continuing remedial and special education services, retentions, and other costs (Barnett and Escobar 1987). While the cost-effectiveness estimates associated with the Perry Preschool Model (Berrueta-Clement et al. 1984) have been criticized as unrealistic by many researchers (see Holden 1990), they have contributed to a widespread acceptance of the idea that early intervention, even if expensive, ultimately pays back its costs. Given, then, that there is growing agreement on the proposition that investments in early intervention are worthwhile, we must turn again to the question of which forms of early intervention are likely to have the greatest impact.

Birth to Age 3 Interventions

Both child-centered and family-centered interventions with at-risk children can make a substantial and, in many cases, lasting difference in their IQ scores (Wasik and Karweit, in press). In child-based interventions, infants and toddlers are placed in stimulating, developmentally appropriate settings for some portion of the day. Family-centered interventions provide parents with training and materials to help them stimulate their children's cognitive development, to help them with discipline and health problems, and to help them with their own vocational and home management skills.

The IQ effects of the birth-to-3 programs were mostly seen immediately after the interventions were implemented, but longer-lasting effects were found in a few cases. The extremely intensive Milwaukee Project (Garber 1988) found the largest long-lasting effects. It provided 35 hours per week of infant stimulation, including one-on-one interaction with trained caregivers followed by high-quality preschool. Parent training and vocational skills training were also included. At age 10, the children (of mildly retarded mothers) had IQs like those of low-risk children, and their IQs were substantially higher than those of a randomly selected control group of at-risk children. As the children reached the 4th grade, they were reading a half year ahead of the control group, and special education referrals were also reduced.

A study of the Gordon Parent Education Program (Jester and Guinagh 1983), which provided impoverished parents with intensive training in child stimulation, found that at age 10, children who had been in the program at least two years still had higher IQs than did a randomly selected control group. Also, they had fewer than half as many special education placements (23 percent vs. 53 percent).

The Carolina Abecedarian Project provided at-risk children with intensive infant stimulation and preschool programs seven hours a day for at least five years, along with services to families. A longitudinal study (Ramey and Campbell 1984) found that K-2 children in the program had higher IQs and fewer retentions than similar control students.

The studies of birth-to-3 interventions demonstrate that IQ is not a fixed attribute. It can be modified by changing a child's environment at home and/or in special center-based programs. Birth-to-3 interventions can also influence special education referrals and retention. It apparently takes intensive intervention over a period of several years to produce *lasting* effects on measures of cognitive functioning, but even the least intensive models, which often produced strong immediate effects, may be valuable starting points for an integrated combination of age-appropriate preventative approaches over the child's early years.

Impact of Preschool

When compared to similar children who do not attend preschool, those who did attend have been found to have higher IQ and language proficiency scores immediately following the preschool experience, although follow-up assessments typically find that these gains do not last beyond the early elementary years at most (see Karweit, in press a; McKey et al. 1985). In addition, little evidence indi-

The key issue for at-risk students is not *whether* additional costs will be necessary, but *when* they should be provided.

cates that preschool experience has any effect on elementary reading performance.

Several studies do show that the most important lasting benefits of preschool are on other outcomes such as retention and placement in special education. Preschool has also been found to have a very long-term impact on dropouts, delinquency, and other behaviors (Berrueta-Clement et al. 1984). It may be that the effects of preschool on outcomes for teenagers are due to the shorter-term effects on retention and special education placements in the elementary grade. Retention and special education placement in elementary school have been found to be strongly related to dropping out of high school (Lloyd 1978).

Clearly, attendance at a high-quality preschool program has long-term benefits for children, but it is equally clear that preschool experience is not enough to prevent early school failure, particularly because we find little evidence to support preschool effects on student reading performance. Preschool experiences for 4-year-olds should be part of a comprehensive approach to prevention and early intervention, but a one-year program, whatever its quality, cannot be expected to solve all the problems of at-risk children.

The Kindergarten Question

Since the great majority of children now attend kindergarten or other structured programs for 5-year-olds, the main questions about kindergarten in recent years have focused on full-day vs. half-day programs and on effects of particular instructional models. Research comparing full- and half-day programs generally finds positive effects of full-day programs on end-of-year measures of reading readiness, language, and other objectives. However, the few studies that have examined maintenance of full-day kindergarten effects have failed to find evidence of maintenance even at the end of 1st grade (see Karweit, in press b).

Several specific kindergarten models were found to be effective on end-of-kindergarten assessments. Among these were Alphaphonics, Early Prevention of School Failure, and TALK. These are all structured, sequenced approaches to building pre-reading and language skills, which are thought to be important predictors of success in 1st grade. However, only Alphaphonics presented evidence of long-term effects on student reading performance (Karweit, in press b). IBM's Writing to Read computer program has had small positive effects on end-of-kindergarten measures, but longitudinal studies have failed to show any carryover to 1st or 2nd grade reading (Freyd and Lytle 1990, Slavin 1991).

Retention, Developmental Kindergarten, and Transitional 1st Grade

Many schools attempt in one form or another to identify young children who are at risk for school failure and give them an additional year before 2nd grade to catch up with grade-level expectations. Students who perform poorly in kindergarten or 1st grade may simply be retained and recycled through the same grade. Alternatively, students who appear to be developmentally immature may be assigned to a two-year "developmental kindergarten" or "junior kindergarten" sequence before entering 1st grade. Many schools have a "transitional 1st grade" or "pre-1st" program to provide a year between kindergarten and 1st grade for children who appear to be at risk.

Interpreting studies of retention and early extra-year programs is difficult. Among other problems, it is unclear what the appropriate comparison group should be. Should a student who attended 1st grade twice be compared to 2nd graders (his or her original classmates) or 1st graders (his or her new classmates)?

Studies comparing students who experienced an extra year of school before 2nd grade have generally found that these students appear to gain on achievement tests in comparison to their same-grade classmates but not in comparison to their agemates. Further, any positive effects of extra-year programs seen in the year following the retention or program participation consistently wash out in later years (Karweit and Wasik, in press; Shepard and Smith 1989). Clearly, the experience of spending another year in school before 2nd grade has no long-term benefits. In contrast, studies of students who have been retained before 3rd grade find that controlling for their achievement, such students are far more likely than similar nonretained students to drop out of school (Lloyd 1978).

Class Size and Instructional Aides

A popular policy in recent years has been to markedly reduce class size in the early elementary grades. Because it is so politically popular and straightforward (albeit expensive) to implement, class size reduction should in a sense be the standard against which all similarly expensive innovations should be judged.

Decades of research on class size have established that small reductions in class size (for example, from 25 to 20) have few if any effects on student achievement. However, research has held out the possibility that larger reductions (for example, from 25 to 15) may have a meaningful impact (see Slavin, in press).

The largest and best-controlled study ever done on this question was a recent statewide evaluation in Tennessee (Word et al. 1990). Kindergartners were randomly assigned to classes of 15, 25 with an aide, or 25 with no aide, and they maintained the same configurations through the 3rd grade. This study found moderate effects in favor of the small classes as of the 3rd grade. A year after the study, this difference was still positive but very small (Nye et al. 1991). Other statewide studies of class size reduction in the 1st grade in South Carolina (Johnson and Garcia-Quintana 1978) and Indiana (Farr et al. 1987) found even smaller effects of substantial reductions in class size.

The Tennessee class size study also evaluated the effects of providing instructional aides to classes of 25 in grades K-3. The effects of the aides were near zero in all years (Folger and Breda 1990). This is consistent with the conclusions of an earlier review by Schuetz (1980). However, there is evidence, cited below, that aides can be effective in providing one-to-one tutoring to at-risk 1st graders. Reducing class size may be part of an overall strategy for getting students off to a good start in school, but it is clearly not an adequate intervention in itself.

By every standard of evidence, logic, and compassion, dollars used preventively make more sense than the same dollars used remedially.

Nongraded Primary Programs

The nongraded primary is a form of school organization in which students are flexibly regrouped according to skill levels across grade lines and proceed through a hierarchy of skills at their own pace (Goodlad and Anderson 1963). This was an innovation of the 1950s and '60s that is making a comeback in the 1990s.

Research from the first wave of implementation of nongraded primary schools supports the use of simple forms of this strategy but not complex ones. In simple forms, students are regrouped across grade lines for instruction (especially in reading and mathematics) and are taught in groups. Such programs primarily allow teachers to accommodate individual needs without requiring students to do a great deal of seatwork (as is necessary in traditional reading groups, for example). In contrast, complex forms of the nongraded primary—which make extensive use of individualized instruction, learning stations, and open space—are generally ineffective in increasing student achievement (Gutiérrez and Slavin 1992).

One-to-One Tutoring

Of all the strategies reviewed in this article, the most effective by far for preventing early reading failure are approaches incorporating one-to-one tutoring of at-risk 1st graders. Wasik and Slavin (1990) reviewed research on five specific tutoring models. One of these, the model used in Success for All, is discussed below. In addition, Reading Recovery (Pinnell et al. 1988) and Prevention of Learning Disabilities (Silver and Hagin 1990) use certified teachers as tutors. The Wallach tutoring program (Wallach and Wallach 1976) and Programmed Tutorial Reading (Ellison et al. 1968) use paraprofessionals and are correspondingly much more prescribed and scripted.

The immediate reading outcomes for all forms of tutoring are very positive, but the largest and longest-lasting effects have been found for the three programs that use teachers as tutors. Reading Recovery is a highly structured model requiring a year of training and feedback. It emphasizes direct teaching of metacognitive strategies, "learning to read by reading," teaching of phonics in the context of students' reading, and integration of reading and writing. Two follow-up studies of this program have found that strong positive effects seen at the end of 1st grade are maintained into 2nd and 3rd grade. Effects on reducing retentions were found in 2nd grade in one study, but these effects had mostly washed out by 3rd grade.

Prevention of Learning Disabilities focuses on remediating specific perceptual deficits as well as improving reading skill. It usually operates for two school years (whereas Reading Recovery rarely goes beyond 1st grade). Reading effects of this program were substantial in two of three studies at the end of the program and remained very large as of the end of 3rd grade in one follow-up study.

Success in the early grades does not guarantee success throughout the school years and beyond, but failure in the early grades does virtually guarantee failure in later schooling.

Improving Curriculum and Instruction

One strategy for enhancing early reading performance is, of course, improving curriculum and instruction in the early grades. All of the tutoring programs cited above used a particular curriculum and set of instructional methods, and it is therefore impossible to separate the unique effects of tutoring from those of the materials and procedures used. Further, any comprehensive approach to prevention and early intervention must include an effective approach to curriculum and instruction in beginning reading.

We do not intend in this article to take on the current controversy about appropriate instruction in beginning reading. We generally agree with the conclusions reached by Adams (1990, p. 416) in a comprehensive, federally mandated review on the topic:

> In summary, deep and thorough knowledge of letters, spelling patterns, and words, and of the phonological translations of all three, are of inescapable importance to both skillful reading and its acquisition. By extension, instruction designed to develop children's sensitivity to spellings and their relations to pronunciations should be of paramount importance in the development of reading skills. This is, of course, precisely what is intended of good phonic instruction.

Adams goes on to define "good phonic instruction" as instruction that teaches word attack skills in the context of meaning, not in isolation from real reading.

The practice and theory of beginning reading are changing so rapidly at present that this is a poor time to make recommendations about appropriate practice. At the moment, very little evidence supports any of the new "whole language" approaches in 1st grade beginning reading (see, for example, Stahl and Miller 1989), but such evidence may develop as these programs gain in sophistication and use.

Success for All

Each of the strategies presented above has focused on one slice of the at-risk child's life. While the birth to age 3 and preschool programs have often integrated services to children with services to parents, the programs for older youngsters often focus only on academics and, in most cases, only one aspect of the academic program such as class size, length of day, grouping, or tutoring in reading.

How much could school failure be prevented if at-risk children were provided with a coordinated set of interventions over the years designed to prevent learning problems from developing in the first place and intervening intensively and effectively when they do occur? This is the question posed in research on Success for All (Madden et al. 1991), which is designed to provide children with whatever programs and resources they need to succeed throughout their elementary years.

Success for All emphasizes prevention and early intervention. Prevention includes the provision of high-quality preschool and/or full-day kindergarten programs; research-based curriculum and instructional methods in all grades, preschool to grade 5; reduced class size and nongraded organization in reading; activities to build positive relationships and involvement with parents; and other elements. Early intervention includes one-to-one tutoring in reading from certified teachers for students who are beginning to fall behind in 1st grade and family support programs to solve truancy, behavior problems, emotional difficulties, or health or social service challenges. In essence, Success for All combines the most effective interventions identified in this article and adds to them extensive staff development in curriculum and instruction and a school organizational plan to flexibly use resources to see that students read, stay out of special education, and are promoted each year.

Research on Success for All has found substantial positive effects on the reading performance of all students in grades 1-3, and on reductions in retentions and special education placements (Slavin et al. 1992). The lasting effects of Success for All into 3rd grade are the largest of any of the strategies reviewed in this article, but they cannot be interpreted as maintenance assessments, as the program continues through the elementary grades. However, with few exceptions, the program beyond the 1st grade consists of improved curriculum, instruction, and family support services, not continued tutoring.

Consistent Patterns

We see a consistent pattern in most of the programs and practices in our review. Whatever their nature, preventative programs tend to have their

Clearly, attendance at a high-quality preschool program has long-term benefits for children, but it is equally clear that preschool experience is not enough to prevent early school failure.

greatest impacts on outcomes closely aligned with the intervention and in the years immediately following the intervention period. The long-term research on effects of preschool on dropout and related variables is one exception to this, but on measures of IQ, reading, special education placements, and retention, preschool effects were like those of other time-limited interventions. The positive effects seen on these variables were strongest immediately after the program and then faded over time.

Some might take the observation that effects of early interventions often fade in later years as an indication that early intervention is ultimately futile. Such a conclusion would be too broad. What research on early intervention suggests is that there is no magic bullet, no program that, administered for one or two years, will ensure the success of at-risk children throughout their school careers and beyond. However, it is equally clear that children must successfully negotiate key developmental hurdles in their first decade of life, and that *we know how to ensure that virtually all of them do so.*

The first hurdle, for children from birth to age 5, is development of the cognitive, linguistic, social, and psychological bases on which later success depends. Second, by the end of 1st grade, students should be well on the way to reading. Each year afterward, students need to make adequate progress in basic and advanced skills. Their progress should enable them to avoid any need for remedial or special education and to be promoted each year.

Research on birth-to-3, preschool, and kindergarten programs shows that we know how to ensure that children enter 1st grade with good language skills, cognitive skills, and self-concepts, no matter what their family backgrounds or personal characteristics. Research on tutoring and on instruction, curriculum, and organization of early grades education shows that we know how to ensure that children enter 4th grade reading, regardless of their family and personal backgrounds. We have focused on early interventions, but it is important to note that many programs and practices show strong evidence of effectiveness for at-risk students throughout the grades (see Slavin et al. 1989). Rather than expecting short-term interventions to have long-term effects, we need to provide at-risk children with the services they need at a particular age or developmental stage.

Does this mean that we need to provide intensive (and therefore expensive) "preventative" services to at-risk students forever? Perhaps we do need this for a very small portion of students now served in special education. But for the great majority of students, including nearly all of those currently served in compensatory education programs and most of those now called "learning disabled," we believe that *intensive* intervention will only be needed for a brief period, primarily one-to-one tutoring in 1st grade. After these students are well launched in reading, they still need high-quality instruction and other services in the later elementary grades to continue to build on their strong base. Improving instruction is relatively inexpensive.

If a cook puts a high flame under a stew, brings it to a boil, and then turns it off, the stew will not cook. If the cook puts a stew on simmer without first bringing it to a boil, the stew will not cook. Only by bringing the stew to a boil and then simmering will the stew cook. By the same token, intensive early intervention for at-risk children with no follow-up in improved instruction is unlikely to produce lasting gains, and mild interventions over extended periods may also fail to bring low achievers into the educational mainstream. Yet intensive early intervention followed by long-term (inexpensive) improvements in instruction and other services can produce substantial and lasting gains.

The best evidence for this perspective comes from research on Success for All. This program usually begins with 4-year-olds, giving them high-quality preschool and kindergarten experiences. These are enough for most children, but the program provides one-to-one tutoring, primarily in 1st grade, for those who have serious reading problems. After that, improvements in curriculum and instruction, plus long-term family support services, are intended to maintain and build on the substantial gains students make in tutoring. The program's findings have shown the effectiveness of this approach: not only do at-risk students perform far better than matched control students at the end of 1st grade, but their advantage continues to grow in 2nd, 3rd, and 4th grades. This is not to say that the particular elements implemented in Success for All are all optimal or essential. Other preschool or kinder-

It is clear that children must successfully negotiate key developmental hurdles in their first decade of life, and we know how to ensure that virtually all of them do so.

garten models, reading models, or tutoring models could be more effective, and outcomes for the most at-risk children could probably be enhanced by intervening before age 4. What is important here is the idea that linking prevention, early intervention, and continuing instructional improvement can prevent school failure for nearly all students.

How Many Students Can Succeed At What Cost?

Our research summary shows that virtually every child can succeed in the early grades *in principle*. The number who will succeed *in fact* depends on the resources we are willing to devote to ensuring success for all and to our willingness to reconfigure the resources we already devote to remedial and special education and related services.

We have evidence (particularly from the Success for All research) to suggest that we can ensure the school success of the majority of disadvantaged, at-risk students using the local and Chapter 1 funds already allocated to these schools in different ways (primarily to improve curriculum, instruction, and classroom management in the regular classroom). However, to ensure the success of *all* at-risk students takes a greater investment. There is a large category of students who would fail to learn to read without intervention but would succeed with good preschool and kindergarten experiences; improved reading curriculum and instruction; and perhaps brief tutoring at a critical juncture, eyeglasses, family support, or other relatively inexpensive assistance. A much smaller group of students might require extended tutoring, more intensive family services, and so on. A still smaller group would need intensive intervention before preschool as well as improved early childhood education, tutoring, and other services to make it in school. One could imagine that any child who is not seriously retarded could succeed in school if he or she had some combination of the intensive birth-to-3 services used in the Milwaukee project; the high-quality preschool programs used in the High/Scope model; the tutoring provided by Reading Recovery or other models; and the improvements in curriculum, instruction, family support, and other services (along with tutoring) provided throughout the elementary grades by Success for All.

The cost of ensuring the success of these extremely at-risk children would, of course, be enormous. Yet a multi-risk child (such as a child from an impoverished and disorganized home with low IQ and poor behavior) will, without effective intervention, cost schools and society an equally enormous amount. Even in the mid-term, excess costs for special or remedial education over the elementary years are themselves staggering. This leaves aside the likely long-term costs of dropping out, delinquency, early pregnancy, and so on (see Barnett and Escobar 1987). The key issue for at-risk students is not *if* additional costs will be necessary, but *when* they should be provided. By every standard of evidence, logic, and compassion, dollars used preventively make more sense than the same dollars used remedially.

The good news in research on prevention and early intervention is that early school failure is fundamentally preventable. The implications of this should be revolutionary. At the policy level, it means we can choose to eradicate school failure, or we can allow it to continue. What we cannot do is pretend that we do not have a choice. ■

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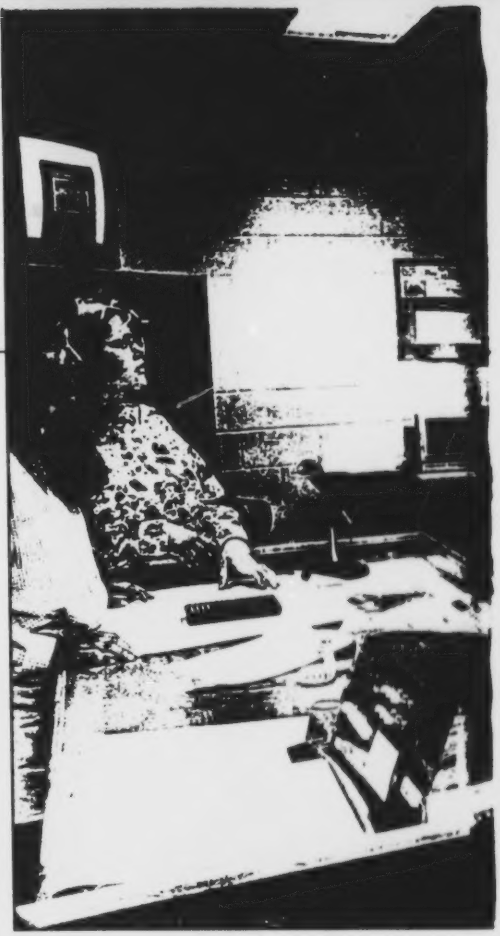
Interactive Technology Brings Algebra to All

Paul A. Kennedy and Nancy Feyl Chavkin

A Texas school district uses fiber-optic technology in a partnership program that provides instruction in higher mathematics to educationally disadvantaged students.



The bell rings, and a hot April sun pours down on a group of students hurrying to class at San Marcos High School in San Marcos, Texas. As a rule, most students would rather be anywhere than a pre-algebra class at this time of year, but these students are an exception.

A teacher greets them as they enter the classroom. Students are carrying calculators and notebooks, and they sit at tables of four in front of a rack of television monitors, three cameras, and a teacher work station. On one of the monitors the students see themselves; on another they see a professor from the university, with whom they exchange greetings.

Three months ago when these 20 9th graders entered the interactive television (ITV) classroom for the first time, they were apprehensive. They had been recruited for this class from remedial mathematics classes, where for eight years they had been conditioned to sit in straight rows doing skill work. Now they would be participating in a curriculum project that would use full two-way audio and video fiber-optic interactive television.

The second bell rings. On the monitor, the students see a split-screen image of a computer-generated problem and the professor. The professor reads the problem: "At a video store you can either pay a $15 annual fee and rent videos for $1.50 each or you pay no annual fee and rent videos for $1.75 each. When is it better to pay the annual fee?"

The classroom teacher instructs the students to work in their groups to solve the problem. Assisted by a graduate student tutor, he gives each student a chart to organize data and checks to see that each group understands the task. Students use guesses and work back and forth in their groups to find that with the annual fee, 60 videos cost $\$1.50(60)+\$15=\$105$, and without the annual fee $\$1.75(60)=\$105$. If you rent more than 60 videos, it is better to pay the annual fee. The teacher calls on a group to come to the teacher station to show its work.

From another group, Rudy explains that he found the answer quickly by noting that there is a 25 cent difference in video price and $15 to make up, so it would take 60 videos to make up the difference. The professor asks the students to look at the pattern in the table to generate two rules where y is the cost and x is the number of videos. The students have been writing algebraic rules since the first week of class and easily come up with $y=\$1.5x + \$15$ for the cost with an annual fee and $y=\$1.75x$ for the cost without. "Now," the classroom teacher asks, "can we write an equation for this situation to show when the costs would be the same?" Rudy answers, "So $\$1.50x + 15$ would be equal to $\$1.75x$." The teacher works the solution on the overhead camera for the class to see, soliciting responses from the class. He then instructs the class to graph each of the rules on their graphing calculators.

Maria and Rebecca volunteer to demonstrate their work at the front. They place a calculator under the overhead camera so the class and professor can see the work on a television monitor. "So what is the point of intersection of the two lines?" the professor asks. Maria explains that it is (60,105). The classroom teacher asks the class to interpret the result. A student explains that the point of intersection is the number of videos, 60, when the cost, $105, is the same.

A follow-up question and a challenge question appear on the monitor: "Suppose the annual fee is increased to $17.50. When is it better to pay the annual fee? Challenge: In the video problem, suppose you could pay $102 for 47 videos a year or $60 for 23 videos? What is the cost per video? What is the annual fee? Write a rule for the cost of videos. Graph it and check to see that your points satisfy the equation."

Students in the PATH classroom share their calculator work with a university professor and classmates via interactive television.

Student teams work quickly through the follow-up question so that they can get to the challenge problem; they enjoy working as a team. In addition to experiencing an enriched curriculum, students interact with school social workers in weekly team sessions. Several of the students have sought the social workers' help with personal problems.

A few weeks ago these students and their parents met at the city park with the PATH staff for a picnic arranged by PATH social workers. Outside the pavilion, parents marvelled at a team of students estimating the distance across the San Marcos River using geometry, similar triangles, the Pythagorean Theorem, and calculators. They perform well when challenged.

The final bell rings. Students exit discussing the challenge problem and the lunch menu. Over the television network, the teacher and professor discuss the lesson and make plans to revise it for final entry into the curriculum document.

PATH Mathematics

Partnership for Access To Higher Mathematics (PATH Mathematics) is a two-year partnership funded by the U.S. Department of Education. It was formed to conduct research on mathematics teaching and learning and research in social services. PATH Mathematics aims to form a partnership among Southwest Texas State University, the San Marcos School District, San Marcos Telephone Company, and the community (families, social agencies, and professional associations) to significantly improve the mathematical skills of at-risk students. By providing them access to algebra and geometry, PATH Mathematics will increase their readiness for post-secondary education.

The project targets approximately 1,000 8th and 9th grade students (54 percent of each class) who have been tracked out of the algebra/geometry curriculum and are one or more years below expected achievement. These students are part of a school district where 60 percent of students are Hispanic-American, 36 percent Anglo, and 4 percent African-American. Forty-four percent of the students are economically disadvantaged.

PATH Mathematics provides students with a comprehensive, hands-on pre-algebra course early enough in their secondary education so that they can complete Algebra I, Geometry, and Algebra II. The pilot classes of 1992 and 1993 use the latest interactive communications technology, which links the university directly with the high school. The curriculum is an immediate intervention for all 9th graders who have been tracked out of algebra and subsequently will be implemented in off-track 8th grade classes.

The Curriculum

The scope and sequence of the PATH curriculum center on the appropriate use of manipulatives and technology coupled with a problem-solving focus in a cooperative setting. PATH's goal is to expand students' knowledge of mathematical concepts and the critical thinking skills necessary to apply those concepts. A variety of innovative instructional strategies is used. The curriculum is designed so that student outcomes are realized through an integrated, student-constructed approach. For example, the notion of variable and linear relations is not treated in isolation; it is developed throughout the year with an emphasis on graphing and solving equations and inequalities, as we demonstrated in our opening example.

The calculator-intensive curriculum is vastly different from the present curriculum for pre-algebra courses, which typically presents students with a review of whole numbers, drills in mathematical computations, a brief introduction to integers, and only a symbolic representation of algebraic systems. There is little problem solving and few concrete applications for the development of concepts. In contrast, the PATH activities focus on real-world applications that require quantitative and/or algebraic solutions. The lessons are designed so that the topics are connected across units.

In addition to regular instruction, the tutoring program both improves the mathematical skills of PATH students and increases their opportunities for continued education after graduation. The tutorial program uses ITV, including a locally broadcast television program called "Homework Hotline," to facilitate the frequency of tutoring sessions conducted by university students. PATH students have regular tutorials in the ITV classroom, and they get additional hands-on experience from lessons in the regular class, where they also have the opportunity to interact with minority college students who are majoring or minoring in mathematics.

Social Support Program

The social support program is a critical element in PATH Mathematics. Joining the forces of diverse sectors of our community helps remove barriers to academic achievement (Chavkin 1990). Many of the low-income minority students who have been tracked out of higher-level mathematics courses face serious health, social, economic, and motivation problems that prevent them from attending class and completing assignments.

The PATH social worker and university social work interns collaborate with social service agencies, minority and majority businesses, parents, and the university to coordinate already existing social services to effectively serve the needs of students and their families. The San Marcos Interagency Council, a consortium of city and county social service agencies, helps provide appropriate services. Business and civic organizations—the San Marcos Chamber of Commerce, the San Marcos Telephone Company, the Hispanic Chamber of Commerce, the League of United Latin American Citizens (LULAC)—contribute by speaking to classes and providing mentors to students.

The social worker conducts parent education workshops and trains parents to work with the school district. In addition to empowering parents to understand and use the resources of the school and the community, the social worker facilitates collaboration between the university and families. Key linkages are being established between students/families and other university programs.

PATH activities focus on real-world applications that require quantitative and/or algebraic solutions.

Interactive Television

To date, no educational partnerships have used fiber-optic technology to increase the mathematical skills of educationally disadvantaged students. PATH is the first digital fiber-optic network of its kind in the state of Texas that serves higher education and public schools. Oklahoma, Kansas, and Mississippi each have one digital fiber-optic project for public schools, but they do not emphasize the partnership of families and community members and do not employ advanced multimedia tools (San Marcos Telephone Company 1992).

The San Marcos Telephone Company is currently providing broad-band capabilities for integrated video, voice, and data uses. The system provides full motion, multiway video, and voice and computer applications. Learners and instructors at the high school and at the university can see and hear each other simultaneously in real life settings. Equipment at each site is similar, allowing each interconnected site to function as a transmitting location (where the teacher is located) or a receiving site (where the students are located). Each classroom includes audio, video, and data equipment as well as a computer-controlled multi-media work station with peripheral devices. The teacher-controlled cameras in each classroom are arranged to allow the teachers to transmit their own image to the other sites, or an image of the students in the room where the instructional program is originating, or an image produced on the overhead camera. A passive switching device allows teachers to select which video source will be transmitted over the system. Multiple monitors and integrated audio systems permit participants in training and instructional settings to see and hear one another simultaneously in a live, continuous-presence arrangement.

In the PATH project, ITV is used primarily as a vehicle for field testing and revising curriculum. This is a dramatic departure from the usual ITV application, which typically involved a teacher at Site A working with students at Site A. The class at Site A was then broadcast to other sites where the course was not available. In the PATH Project pilot year, a university professor and a master teacher at the high school team-taught three classes of 20 each to field test, evaluate, and revise curriculum. The activities were taped for more in-depth evaluation. This unique use of ITV has proven to be an invaluable tool for curriculum development.

Project Outcomes

Many students who are enrolled in pre-algebra classes have been consistently tracked into lower-level classes, where they are subjected to low expectations and a boring curriculum. To provide students with a more engaging curriculum, PATH integrates activities of its three components: hands-on discovery learning, role-model tutoring, and personal links to social support services.

At the end of the pilot year, some interesting statistical results were noted (Kennedy, in press). Student grades during the pilot semester were significantly higher than the previous semester, and student attendance in the three pilot PATH classes significantly improved over the previous year. In addition, statistically significant correlations were noted between student attitude and use of calculator technology with achievement. There was no correlation between performance on a beginning-of-term arithmetic skills test and performance on an end-of-term algebra test. This is an interesting result since, contrary to the thinking of many mathematics teachers, arithmetic skill does not appear to be a prerequisite of higher mathematical thinking. At the end of the pilot semester, PATH students could generate a linear function given a graph, two points, or a real-world problem that could be modeled with a linear function. This is an uncharacteristic pre-algebra outcome. The PATH students scored significantly higher on the end-of-term algebra test than a comparable group of students in regular pre-algebra and algebra classes.

Perhaps the best indicator of success was the fact that 20 PATH students enrolled in a summer mathematics enrichment program. Joe Kopec, principal of San Marcos High School, commented that not only did the project outcomes "exceed his expectations" in the pilot semester, but he was particularly impressed that these students volunteered for a summer program to "learn for the sake of learning."

> We expect that increasing students' skills in mathematics will lead to increased aspirations for college attendance.

What's Next?

In 1992-1993, the PATH Project serves three 8th grade and eleven 9th grade sections of students in three schools. Field testing with ITV continues with eight classes. The others serve as a beginning replication effort. The project is being documented with extensive qualitative and quantitative data, and the preliminary results suggest that all students can succeed in algebra as long as they are provided with an adequate support system including tutoring and social services. Teacher training in hands-on cooperative instruction, the use of peer tutoring, and the availability of social workers in the school will ensure the successful replication of a project like PATH Mathematics.

Critics will quickly point out that we could develop and implement a partnership for success without ITV. However, we see three distinct advantages to using ITV in PATH Mathematics. First, ITV removes logistical barriers to instructional delivery. Problems for most partnerships—distance, time, and schedule coordination—are nonexistent for our partnership. Second, ITV allows for more cost-effective use of instructional resources. We will be able to deliver more services to wider audiences for fewer dollars. Third, ITV allows at-risk students to see and interact with university faculty and students regularly in their high school career.

PATH Mathematics is clear about its expected outcomes for students—success for all students. Based on the studies reported by the College Board (Pelavin and Kane 1990), we expect that increasing students' skills in mathematics will lead to increased aspirations for college attendance. Because of the partnership effort, students in the PATH Mathematics program will make a successful transition into higher-level mathematics and post-secondary education, paving the way for productive lives in the 21st century.

Because every community in the United States, regardless of size, has access to a telephone company, our model can be replicated virtually anywhere. By joining forces, business and education can use their telephone company's fiber-optic technology to eliminate educational inequities and thereby significantly improve academic excellence and equality. ■

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Supporting Victims of Child Abuse

Thelma Bear, Sherry Schenk, and Lisa Buckner

Classroom teachers have a unique opportunity to identify abused children and to start the healing process that will restore safety to their lives.

Survivors' Voices

Before I started kindergarten, I knew that I could not believe what people said. My father would say, "I know you like this," as e touched me in sexual ways that I did not like or that caused great physical pain. My early years were a real struggle. Because I could not trust what I heard, it was hard to learn sound-letter associations, memorize isolated facts, or learn anything I had heard and not seen.

The messages I received from my perpetrators were intended to prevent my telling what they were doing to me. To keep the horrible secret I learned to be silent, and the silence became my prison. I felt that I was the only child who had ever experienced such bad things. I thought I was so bad that I should separate myself from everyone. It was lonely.

Since I felt I could not talk, I did all kinds of quiet acting out in the hope that someone would notice that something was terribly wrong in my life. My behaviors were either ignored or I was told to behave, to be a good girl. During 3rd and 4th grade, I repeatedly sawed on or cut my wrist with a little knife. I wore bizarre clothing, laughed excessively, and withdrew from others.

Today I am a school psychologist. I have overcome the academic hurdles, but I continue to experience some of the emotional pain of abuse.

—*Sherry Schenk*

messages about my abuse were also ded to keep me quiet, to protect my petrators. I was quiet and shy, but I would also do daring things with little regard for my physical safety. They called me "accident prone." I was told I was crazy and that if I ever told, "someone" would take me away and I would never see anyone in my family again ... or I would be killed. These were terrifying threats to me.

I was a very good student, usually at the top of my class. Looking back now, I was afraid to be anything but perfect. I was afraid of what would happen at home. School became a safe haven, and I worked hard to keep it that way by staying silent about my abuse. I remember more than once trying to get teachers to take me home with them.

I am currently a school bus driver and enjoy daily contact with children in a less-structured environment. When I see symptoms of child abuse, I report what I hear and observe. I would always rather err on the side of the child. I would rather make the report than to ignore what I know.

—*Lisa Buckner*

In 1987, when I was asked to facilitate groups for survivors of abuse at a University Counseling Center, I knew little about the incidence or results of abuse. The frequency of women who had been abused as children was much greater than we had thought. We soon had 4 groups and more than 50 names on a waiting list. I learned about the tremendous cost of keeping the family secret. I learned of the emotional pain that can result from feeling different. As an educator I was appalled at my previous lack of awareness of the consequences of abuse. I vowed to somehow assist in giving a voice to those survivors who can teach us what it was to live with abuse and how to help today's children.

—*Thelma Bear*

Our varied roles as therapist, educator, school psychologist, school bus driver, student, and administrator have provided us with the experience and education on which this article is based. This is a new field, an area in which all of us are searching for facts, understanding, and ways to help those who have been and continue to be abused. The combined perspectives we share from personal, professional, and academic experiences have added to our knowledge in ways that have been valuable to us as people who care a great deal about children.

Probably no adult is more trusted by children who have been abused than a beloved and caring teacher. Teachers have an opportunity afforded few adults to identify abused children and to start a process that will restore safety in the child's world. However, many teachers have not been adequately prepared to deal with the complex social issues that have so strongly affected abused children. We want to give teachers a knowledge base about child abuse, describe possible interventions, and communicate an understanding of the emotional issues involved.

The Incidence of Child Abuse

Although the statistics are overwhelming, professionals in the mental health field generally accept that the incidence of child abuse is much greater than that reported.

In 1979, Geiser advised that 200,000 children were sexually abused each

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Figure 1

	Physical Indicators	Behavioral Indicators	
Physical Abuse	■ unexplained bruises (in various stages of healing), welts, human bite marks, bald spots ■ unexplained burns, especially cigarette burns or immersion-burns (glove-like) ■ unexplained fractures, lacerations, or abrasions	■ self-destructive ■ withdrawn and aggressive—behavioral extremes ■ uncomfortable with physical contact ■ arrives at school early or stays late as if afraid	■ chronic runaway (adolescents) ■ complains of soreness or moves uncomfortably ■ wears clothing inappropriate to weather, to cover body
Physical Neglect	■ abandonment ■ unattended medical needs ■ consistent lack of supervision ■ consistent hunger, inappropriate dress, poor hygiene ■ lice, distended stomach, emaciated	■ regularly displays fatigue or listlessness, falls asleep in class ■ steals food, begs from classmates ■ reports that no caretaker is at home	■ frequently absent or tardy ■ self-destructive ■ school dropout (adolescents)
Sexual Abuse	■ torn, stained, or bloodied underclothing ■ pain or itching in genital area ■ difficulty walking or sitting ■ bruises or bleeding in external genitalia ■ venereal disease ■ frequent urinary or yeast infections	■ withdrawn, chronic depression ■ excessive seductiveness ■ role reversal, overly concerned for siblings ■ poor self-esteem, self-devaluation, lack of confidence ■ peer problems, lack of involvement ■ massive weight change	■ suicide attempts (especially adolescents) ■ hysteria, lack of emotional control ■ sudden school difficulties ■ inappropriate sex play or premature understanding of sex ■ threatened by physical contact, closeness ■ promiscuity
Emotional Maltreatment	■ speech disorders ■ delayed physical development ■ substance abuse ■ ulcers, asthma, severe allergies	■ habit disorders (sucking, rocking) ■ antisocial, destructive ■ neurotic traits (sleep disorders, inhibition of play)	■ passive and aggressive—behavioral extremes ■ delinquent behavior (especially adolescents) ■ developmentally delayed

Adapted in part from D. D. Broadhurst, M. Edmunds, and R. A. MacDicken (1979). *Early Childhood Programs and the Prevention and Treatment of Child Abuse and Neglect.* The User Manual Series. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

year with victims as young as two months. "Nightline's" Forrest Sawyer (1989) stated that 2 million cases of child abuse are reported in the United States every year. In its newsletter, the National Organization for Victims' Assistance (1989) indicated that 2.2 million children are reported physically or sexually abused each year. Many cases are closed after a cursory investigation; many cases remain unreported.

Of the cases reported, many are young children. Among Blume's (1990) statistics were:

- 35 percent of all reported child [illegible]x abuse cases in 1988 were of girls under 6.
- Dr. Michael Durfee of the Los Angeles Department of Health Services reported in 1984 that more sexual abuse was reported on 2-year-olds than any other age group; 3- and 4-year-olds were next.

Kantrowitz (1988) gave the following numbers:

- More than 2 million cases of child abuse were reported in 1986, compared with 669,000 in 1976.
- More than 1,200 children die each year through child abuse and neglect.
- Parents who were abused as children were six times more likely to abuse their own children.

Goodwin (1982) reported that:

- 5 to 20 percent of psychiatric outpatients were women who had experienced incest.
- 4 out of 10 mothers of children who died of physical abuse were incest victims.

According to Butler (1978), a much greater incidence of incest occurred among affluent, middle-, and upper-class families than was reported. Of reported sexual abuse, she asserted that 75 percent of the incidents were committed by someone the child trusted. Butler (1978) added that:

- One-half to three-fourths of adult male sexual offenders had been sexually abused.
- Sexual abuse was one of three reasons children ran away from home.
- In a questionnaire sent to 1,800 college students, one-third indicated that they had been sexually abused.

Research on child abuse is a fairly recent development. Only in the last two decades has the subject appeared in professional journals. It is urgent that all personnel in public schools become educated and make every effort to break the continuing cycle of abuse.

Types of Abuse

How is child abuse defined? The Colorado Department of Education (1988) describes four types:

1. *Physical abuse*: nonaccidental physical injury to a child. Examples include slapping, shaking, hitting, kicking, burning, pushing, smothering, restraining (physical or chemical), and torture (may be related to ritualistic abuse and/or satanic worship). A few forms of abuse may be attributed to lack of knowledge on the part of the parent—for instance, neurological damage can result from shaking a child. Physical abuse should be suspected if the following are present: bruises, burns, broken bones, and/or internal injuries. Further, a child who appears fearful or who startles easily may be the victim of abuse.

2. *Emotional maltreatment*: the constant belittling and rejecting of a child, the absence of a positive emotional atmosphere. Examples include verbal abuse, inadequate or inappropriate parenting, and neglect. Any of these can destroy a child's self-esteem and weaken self-concept. The "failure to thrive" syndrome is an example of the results of emotional maltreatment. Delays in emotional development and immature behavior may indicate emotional neglect.

3. *Physical neglect*: failure on the part of the child's caretaker to provide adequate food, clothing, shelter, or supervision. The extreme form of neglect is abandonment of a child with no regard or concern for his or her welfare.

4. *Sexual abuse*: sexual exploitation, molestation, or prostitution of a child (p. 1). Sgroi, Porter, and Blick (1982) define child sexual abuse as a sexual act imposed on a child who lacks the emotional, maturational, and cognitive development to understand what is happening and to protect him- or herself. Sexual abuse may be overt or covert. Examples of overt abuse include unwanted touching of any part of the body, such as hugs or kisses presented as innocent signs of affection. More obvious examples include any penetration of the body with objects or body parts. Unexplained infections or diseases and external or internal injuries are symptoms that require investigation for the possibility of sexual abuse.

Probably no adult is more trusted by children who have been abused than a beloved and caring teacher.

Covert sexual abuse is more difficult to recognize. Since this type of abuse does not include physical contact, the perpetrator may rationalize the behavior as innocent. Examples may include voyeurism, asking the child to watch inappropriate sexual behaviors, invading the child's privacy, and/or behaving in a seductive manner toward the child.

Most adults who have not been abused would rather not accept the reality of the number of children who have been abused. Many prefer to think of physical injury, terrorizing, and psychological torture as atrocities that only happen to hostages imprisoned in foreign countries. They do not want to accept that these abominations occur to nearly 2.7 million children in this country ("Study Finds …" 1992). Figure 1 lists physical and behavioral indicators of these four types of abuse.

A Safe Classroom Environment

There is no escape for children caught in a world where silence often seems the only way to survive. And there is no escape from confronting the issues for those who work with children. Teachers who educate themselves about abuse will find many opportunities to support children who have neither the experience nor the maturity to unravel the turmoil they face.

Although the academic environment is structured for learning, the ability to learn is dependent on a child's arriving at school with basic needs met. Children who have been abused have had the basic requirements for healthy development withheld and violated. Getting physiological needs met, as well as those for safety, belonging, trust, and love, maximizes the child's development as a learner. The classroom teacher has the opportunity to provide an environment where the child can begin to succeed and recognize that he or she is capable and valued.

The most important ingredient in a safe classroom is the teacher's attitude toward students. The most crucial belief a teacher must have is that the child is not to blame. There is nothing that a child can do to prevent or stop the abuse. The discrepancy between the power of a child and that of an adult is too great. However, it is important to remember that these children are strong. They have developed coping mechanisms that have helped them to survive traumatic experiences. An accepting, caring attitude by the teacher will allow the child to trust enough to make the first steps toward developing a saner life.

Each of us needs a personal space into which others do not intrude without permission (Blume 1990). Victimized children have not learned that it is okay to say no, nor do they know how it feels to have personal and physical space honored. The teacher should help an abused child to set healthy boundaries and to know that he or she will be respected. Before the child can believe in his or her ability to set personal boundaries, he or she may need to be taught to trust personal judgments, feelings, and perceptions (Blume 1990).

Part of establishing healthy boundaries is understanding that confidentiality within the school is honored by staff and students. If a student confides in classmates and teachers, the information must be handled with great care in order to protect the vulnerability of the child. At times, the disclosure of information about the abuse may be unintentional. Some of the ways the secret may accidentally be disclosed are observations by the teacher or others, physical injuries or conditions discovered in a doctor's examination, and/or inappropriate sexual behaviors by the child (Sgroi et al. 1982).

To offer support, the teacher must, first, be approachable. If an abused child begins to tell what is happening, positive body language will encourage the child to continue. The teacher must also watch for cues about how to respond. The child may either want to be comforted physically or may not want to be touched. At this point, it is more important to actively listen than to comment or ask questions. Listening to those who will talk is important; however, some students will be unable to share verbally what is happening. In these instances, the teacher must be observant. The indicators listed in Figure 1 may help teachers in attempting to decide if abuse should be suspected.

Drawings, too, may provide clues to students who have been sexually abused. Hillman and Solek-Tefft (1988) list five themes to ask a child about if they are drawn repeatedly: stark sexual images, phallic symbols, general symbols (broken hearts, rain, black skies), self-image distortions, and general confusion (p. 107).

Girls and boys who have been abused attempt both to keep the secret of what is happening and to control the emotional turmoil they feel inside. As a result, the child may act out, or he or she may become the epitome of the "good" child. Both of these behaviors may disguise the problem. A child who behaves as a perfect student may be seen as having no problems, while acting out may cover the real issues, making the child appear to be the problem. Teachers should listen to their gut response to a child, particularly if that feeling is based on a suspicion that something is wrong.

If an abused student confides in classmates and teachers, the information must be handled with great care to protect the vulnerability of the child.

Occasionally a child will spontaneously disclose an episode of abuse. Although a teacher may doubt the story, it is vitally important to believe the child (Besharov 1990). The child is taking a significant step in trusting the teacher enough to tell what is happening. To betray that trust would repeat the betrayal experienced when an adult abused the child and failed to serve as a protector. Even though the explanation may be fragmented, teachers should listen supportively and ask open-ended questions to fill in gaps. Sometimes after telling the secret, the child may recant the story due to fear, threats, or acceleration of the abuse (Sgroi et al. 1982). Most experts agree that children do not have the ability or knowledge to make up complex lies, especially lies related to adult sexual behavior (Besharov 1990, Conerly 1986, Crewdson 1988).

How to Support an Abused Child

In addition to creating a safe classroom environment, there are other ways teachers can help support an abused child. Most of these behaviors and attitudes are familiar ones.

1. *Expectations*. Teachers can honor the strength and courage of these children by having high expectations for them. Emotionality may interfere with thinking; therefore, it is important to set reasonable goals and to provide the support needed for the child to feel confident in his or her abilities. School can be a place where children rebuild their self-esteem, assert themselves, and see themselves as successful.

2. *Structure*. Abused children may feel powerless to control much in their environment. To cope, they may: (a) refuse to even try to control what happens around them; (b) strive to manipulate everything they can by bossing peers and controlling belongings; and (c) express disproportionate feelings whenever they feel threatened. When these children fly off the handle with little provocation, they may be doing so to try to establish control. To help the child feel a sense of control in a positive manner, teachers should give accurate information and build trust. Allowing expression of feelings when appropriate through art, music, drama, and/or creative writing will also help the child to feel less controlled by pent-up emotion.

3. *Identity*. Children who have been abused in ways that met an adult's needs and denied the child's needs have little sense of personal identity. Teachers can help by pointing out the child's strengths. Statements such as "You are a hard worker," "You are a good friend when you help a classmate with a problem," and "People in this classroom like you because you are fun to be with" will help the child understand how others perceive him or her. Teachers can also help abused children gain a sense of personal identity by asking questions that help them formulate a position on issues, administering interest inventories, and teaching decision-making and problem-solving skills. These skills will assist in interpersonal relationships as well as in self-understanding.

4. *Self-esteem*. Abused children have little self-esteem. Teachers can help them learn that they are valued, accepted, and capable by fostering an environment that honors each child's uniqueness. Valuing differences will enable children to begin to see themselves as having something to contribute that others appreciate.

With each successful completion of a classroom task, the child's sense of competency will be fostered.

5. *Sense of belonging.* Abused children think they did something wrong and that they are bad. Because they have kept a secret from everyone, they assume there is a reason for them to be isolated from others. To facilitate a sense of belonging, the teacher may provide designated places for possessions, display work in the classroom, and make a conscious attempt to include these children in classroom activities. Support through teaching social skills individually, in small group settings, and through cooperative learning will also help abused children practice interacting in a nonthreatening atmosphere.

6. *Social skills.* Because abused children have not learned to listen to their inner selves, they may focus on pleasing and meeting the needs of others while neglecting their own needs. Having been introduced to the adult world through an abusive relationship, the child may have learned inappropriate behaviors and language. The child may feel unworthy to interact on an equal basis with others and may fear rejection. A classroom climate that fosters caring, appreciation for differences, consistent rules and boundaries, and recognition for small successes will nurture a child who has been discounted at home.

7. *Tolerance of differences.* Because each child will respond in a unique way to abuse, classroom behaviors may be variable. Some of the feelings an abused child may experience are anxiety, guilt, embarrassment, depression, anger, and resolution (Hillman and Solek-Tefft 1988). The checklist (fig. 1) may help teachers identify emotions and behaviors that might be explained by abuse. Consultation with a school psychologist, social worker, counselor, or nurse may also help teachers understand unexplainable behaviors and emotions of their students.

Teachers have the opportunity to give an abused child gifts that cannot be measured in any monetary or quantitative way.

8. *Consistency.* Teachers can support a child's need for structure by maintaining a consistent daily schedule, by having clear expectations for performance in both behavioral and affective areas, and by allowing the child to provide structure in his or her own way. A child's need for structure can restrict the depth of his or her encounter with the world. Teachers may respond to this need by encouraging risk-taking in ways that will encourage success and personal worth.

Although teachers are not responsible for investigation of child abuse, they are legally obligated to report suspected abuse. When abuse is suspected, the teacher can compare the child's behaviors with those of other students at the same developmental level, review the child's past and present behaviors, and refer to indicators such as those listed in Figure 1. To report any suspicions, the teacher should contact the school district child abuse team or the Department of Social Services. The appropriate agencies will assess the situation and decide how to keep the child safe.

Working with children who have suffered abuse is a skill that every teacher possesses. Given a few guidelines and accurate information, the teacher's natural concern and caring for students will promote the process of healing. Teachers have the opportunity to give an abused child the hope of a childhood, the joy of play, and the sense of being cared for by others. Those are gifts that cannot be measured in any monetary or quantitative way. ■

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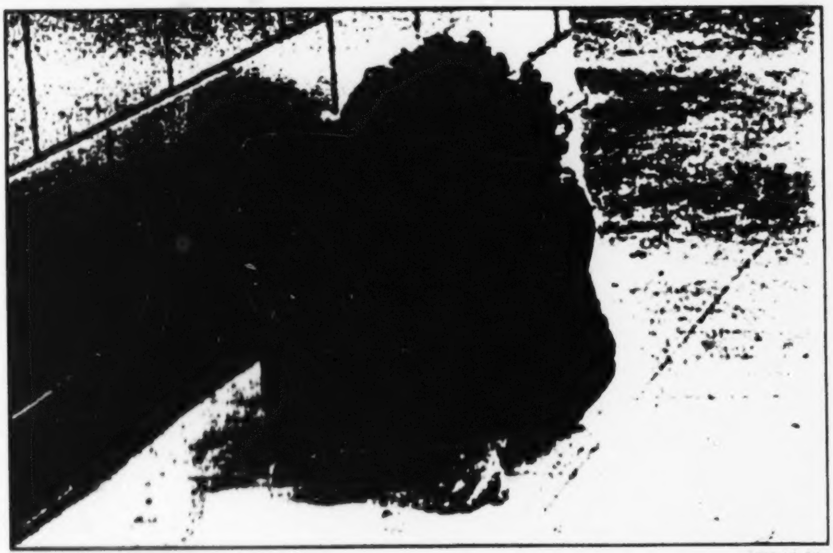

Helping Crack-Affected Children Succeed

Mary Bellis Waller

Children impaired by this cheap form of cocaine are as intelligent as other children; their affect and social skills are damaged. Adaptations in teaching methods and the classroom environment can help them achieve academic success.

A classroom for young children affected by crack does not look like other early childhood settings with their mobiles, bright bulletin boards, and a constant stimulation of the senses. The classroom for crack-affected students is austere. There are no bulletin boards and no examples of children's art until, perhaps, late in the year, when the children can handle such stimulation. Only a few toys and books are in view, and other materials are hidden on shelves behind a simple fabric curtain. The lights are low, and there is little to distract the child. Learning and teaching areas are set up so that each child can be alone while learning. Play equipment usually used outdoors, like basketballs and climbing bars, is available inside the classroom so children can learn how to handle it appropriately and hone their gross motor skills with simple exercise. Tumbling mats are also available for the same purpose.

The classroom I'm describing isn't necessarily lacking in funds, nor is it a place where the teacher has failed to provide the kind of rich environment students need. On the contrary, this teacher has made the important modifications needed to meet the special needs of children exposed to crack and cocaine. As former Wisconsin governor Lee Sherman Dreyfus observed, "There are only two kinds of school districts: those that have crack-affected children, and those that will have."

Who Are Crack-Affected Children?

Chasnoff and associates (1990) report that about 14 percent of pregnant women use drugs or alcohol that can cause permanent physical damage to a child during pregnancy. Approximately 400,000 children are born annually to mothers who used crack or cocaine during pregnancy. These drugs are chemically similar and have the same effects on fetuses.

A recent study by Yazigi and associates (1991) shows that cocaine

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molecules bond to human sperm in lab tests. The ramifications of this are not clear, but it is possible that some children are affected by paternal use of these drugs immediately prior to conception. Extensive medical research documents actual changes in the fetal central nervous system in response to crack and cocaine (Chasnoff et al. 1985, 1986, 1989, 1991; Lewis et al. 1989; MacGregor 1987; Rodning 1989; Ryan 1987). This has enormous implications for early care providers and schools.

Crack-affected children are overwhelmed by ordinary experiences, and they need stability, routine, and sameness in the classroom to feel secure enough to learn.

How They're Different

Children affected by crack and cocaine look like other children: they show the full range of size, vigor, and intelligence. However, many of them also show a number of problems that do not simply resolve themselves. Unless those crack-affected children receive specially designed interventions, they will continue to experience the problems during each developmental stage.

Infancy. Crack-affected infants are susceptible to Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS), apnea, and other sleeping disorders. Many have tremors and convulsions. They are easily overwhelmed by stimuli, responding with a hyper-startle or, in the extreme, by losing consciousness. These infants have difficulty paying attention, and they cannot track visually (Ryan 1987; Schneider 1990; Weston et al. 1989; Van Baar et al. 1989a, 1989b).

More important, crack-affected infants are often averse to being touched and to being looked at, as these strong stimuli threaten to overload them. Consequently, they do not cuddle and often fail to bond with a caregiver. This failure to bond is an important indicator that the child may have great difficulty forming relationships in the future.

In a series of interviews with teachers who had worked with crack- and cocaine-affected children, I found that the problems identified in infants by medical researchers continue in different form through elementary school and into the teens (Waller, unpublished). As a teacher educator working with hundreds of these children and their instructors, I also found that teachers have discovered effective methods for working with such children.

Preschool. As toddlers, crack-affected children are often hyperactive, late in developing language, and late in walking. They are self-absorbed, impulsive, unaware of others, and unable to focus attention for any length of time. By age 3, they are often isolated because other children do not trust their unpredictable mood swings and sometimes violent outbursts.

These toddlers do not understand cause and effect relationships, either in classroom discipline that prescribes a timeout for certain behaviors or in play where jumping off a table causes pain. They do not feel remorse for hurting others, and they do not seem to develop conscience.

Crack-affected toddlers can do what they are told and shown, but they cannot plan their own time or activities. In general, they seem to have trouble organizing their experiences and making sense out of them. Their play is random, disorganized, and pointless. They often do not understand games, and they are unable to focus attention long enough to learn them.

School age. The oldest crack-affected children today are only 8 years old, but older children whose mothers took cocaine during pregnancy offer us a window on how crack-affected children will act when they reach high school. Teachers report that cocaine-affected school-age children are still impulsive and sometimes violent. Also, they are distractible, hyperactive, and disruptive, and school discipline does not seem effective. These children show learning and memory problems, and they are slow to develop friendships. They often remain isolated, even into high school, and their social skills are hampered by their inability to set limits or recognize appropriate limits for speech and behavior. As they grow older, they embarrass peers because of their inappropriate social behaviors and blurted comments. Cocaine-affected children are unable to catch nonverbal cues. Their efforts to make friends are hampered by this, because they do not understand what another's smile or frown means in terms of their own behaviors. This makes classroom motivation and discipline especially difficult because a teacher's expressions have no meaning.

Their learning is affected by a continuing problem with cause and effect. Middle school teachers report that the cumulative and sequential nature of mathematics has posed a substantial problem to cocaine-affected teens, while language-based subjects are more accessible for them. They are still unable to structure or plan their own activities, and they are easily influenced by others because they are lonely and lack friends.

How Can Schools Respond?

Teachers report that crack-affected children who experience early intervention tailored to their problems can be mainstreamed successfully into regular classes. They estimate that if children are identified by age 2, a two-year intervention will teach a child enough to be mainstreamed. If the schools do not see a student until age 5, as often happens, a longer intervention may be necessary. Few believe that the crack-affected child will need to be in special education classes all through school, unless no appropriate intervention is ever provided.

Schools must acknowledge that cocaine and crack are easily available in any area of the country and that affluence does not protect against recreational drug use. Schools must also acknowledge that many exposed children will never officially be identified. There is tremendous denial on the part of drug-using parents, and only a fraction of them will admit to behaviors which harmed their children.

On the basis of identification of a cluster of behaviors often associated with crack use, children need to be placed into an intervention environment where special teaching techniques will be used. Placement must be understood as only temporary, for a period of 1 to 3 years. The child will return to regular classes as soon as basic academic and social skills have been mastered.

Inside the Intervention Classroom

Teachers in intervention classrooms need to emphasize long-term expectations for their students. It can be frustrating to teach and reteach the same thing daily for weeks and find that students still don't understand it, but this is what often happens with crack-affected children. Their intellect works, and can be reached, but a longer timeline may be necessary.

Teachers need to forget all they know about their repertoire of exciting teaching styles. Crack-affected children can be overwhelmed by ordinary experiences, and they need stability, routine, and sameness in the intervention classroom to feel secure enough to learn.

Since their affect appears to be flawed, teachers must work with the intellect, which is undamaged. Words are the way to the intellect, so early therapy with speech is vital to reach the crack-affected child at all. Facial expressions have no meaning (or inappropriate meaning) to crack-affected children, so they must be taught *in words* in home and school. Encouragement and praise must be done verbally, not simply with a smile or a friendly look.

Crack-affected children who experience early intervention can be mainstreamed into regular classes.

It's important to use one teaching modality. Because of their inability to order their experiences, crack-affected children cannot recognize one lesson taught five different ways. Crack-affected children will believe they're learning five different things! Teachers must teach, tell, reteach, retell, model, demonstrate, and have the child demonstrate the lesson.

Teachers of crack-affected children report idiosyncratic learning and memory problems. Students are taking in all the information, but the "filing system" required to recall information is flawed. Teacher after teacher tell stories like this: A 5-year-old child learns to tie her shoelaces one morning and demonstrates she knows how to do it. That afternoon, she again demonstrates her skill. But day after day, the child cannot remember how to tie her shoes, and must be retaught.

The parents finally buy her shoes that are fastened with Velcro. Two weeks later, the teacher sees the child tying another child's shoes. This same disrupted rhythm is exhibited in academic areas. All the 6- and 7-year-olds I have seen so far have been able to read, but their comprehension lags far behind decoding. Teachers may respond to such memory problems by allowing more wait time for students to respond, but they also must be prepared to reteach and reteach.

Teaching Social Skills

Social skills also must be taught in words and modeling. Since the children are unable to pick up on nonverbal cues on their own, words are again the vehicle. Hints and facial expressions are meaningless to a crack-affected child; direct instruction in sharing, greeting, and thanking is necessary. Role playing is appropriate for school-age children, because it allows actual practice in face-to-face interactions with other children, providing a structured social occasion with specific tasks to achieve.

Play must also be taught in words and modeling. Play has no intrinsic value to crack-affected children; they are disorganized and make no sense out of their experience. Their physical activities are random and without point. Play and games must be taught by direct instruction, then by guided play, then by play under supervision. The instruction must be specific so children do not see play and games as a time they need to arrange for themselves.

Routine and familiarity are vital in maintaining attention and facilitating learning. Transitions are particularly hard for crack-affected children, and the teacher must prepare students for transitions from active to quiet activities, from class to lunch or dismissal, from school to field trips, and from one subject to another. Preparation is done by talking about and reviewing all the things that will happen with the change, perhaps by questioning the children about the transition or sometimes by role playing (as in preparing for a field trip).

Effective Restraint

Teachers of crack-affected children must also know how to safely restrain children when they become hyperactive or threaten to hurt others. This restraint serves as a safety mechanism for the child, who cannot regain self-control when hyperactive. Teachers report that children who have been restrained become conditioned to eventually calm themselves when merely hugged for a moment by the teacher. The child struggles momentarily, then sighs and relaxes, achieving balance again.

Teachers cannot assign blame for

disruptive behaviors. The most successful teachers with crack- and cocaine-affected children are those who recognize that the child has no self-control and the behavior needs to be changed. Time-outs are often effective, but physical restraint may be necessary. For children with good language skills, it can be effective to take away privileges and give a full explanation of why and under what circumstances privileges are lost. This needs to be explained over and over.

Avoiding Overload

Small groups are effective for presenting one idea or set of materials at a time and ensuring that children have achieved mastery. Teachers need to check on task completion frequently, because lack of perseverance is often a problem.

Teachers should focus students' attention on the paper, book, or toy in the lesson. For example, the teacher may place the child's hand on the page and move it down to focus attention. A good teacher knows that touching a child, speaking to her, and looking into her eyes at the same time can be overwhelming. There is a better chance of success if the teacher touches the child's hand while speaking in a low voice and avoiding eye contact.

Art and music must be carefully introduced in a highly structured manner. Without structure, these subjects are too stimulating because they reach several senses simultaneously. Teachers suggest working with one color crayon at a time, or teaching simple songs without accompaniment. Several teachers have reported success with humming or singing without words, so students aren't overloaded.

The Future

Interviews with teachers, parents, and foster parents of older cocaine-affected children, some of them teenagers, indicate that the behaviors seen in younger children can persist until adulthood. Without intervention, the impulsivity and inability to internalize rules of appropriate behavior will result in early sexual activity and drug and alcohol use. This probably means drug-impaired children born to drug-impaired children who are unable to care for them.

> Without intervention, we are looking at millions of healthy, vigorous, intelligent sociopaths in the schools and in society.

Without intervention, we are looking at millions of healthy, vigorous, intelligent sociopaths in the schools and in society. A long-term research study on the moral development of crack-affected children is now under way in Wisconsin (Waller, in press), and it will provide information on whether interventions can help in the development of conscience and internalization of social rules.

With intervention, children can learn and complete school. With intervention, children can learn appropriate social behaviors and interactions.

Schools have a choice. ■

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Streamlining Interagency Collaboration for Youth at Risk

To meet the complex needs of today's students, schools and community agencies need a thoughtful approach for pooling their efforts as well as an awareness of the pitfalls to avoid.

GRACE PUNG GUTHRIE AND LARRY F. GUTHRIE

Schools are in a bind. They're often expected to meet the complex social and emotional needs of today's diverse student populations, not just their academic needs. A wide assortment of social service agencies has been organized to serve children and youth at risk; but the services often overlap, agencies are compartmentalized, and children are incorrectly referred (Fantini and Sinclair 1985, Heath and McLaughlin 1989, Hodgkinson 1989, Kirst and McLaughlin 1989, Melaville and Blank 1991, Schorr 1989). As Hodgkinson (1989) points out, the "bewildering array" of agencies has become part of a large, unwieldy bureaucracy where the emphasis is on self-preservation. Because the types of services and eligibility requirements are determined by sets of complex rules and regulations, critical needs go unmet, and those families least able to navigate their way through the maze of requirements are left out.

Now is the time to look at the full range of functions that schools are being asked to perform and identify which of those the school is best suited to handle, which can best be provided by other institutions and agencies, and which can best be accomplished by joint efforts. The challenge is not simply to divide up responsibilities, but to reconceptualize the role of the school and relationships among the school, the community, and the larger society. The new arrangement must be designed so that it shifts the emphasis of each agency away from itself and toward the client: the child.

We hope to stimulate and challenge people on the front line of youth education and services to expand their thinking and devise better and more efficient ways to suit their specific local talents and conditions. Already, the experiences of those struggling to provide better integrated services to youth at risk have convinced us that alternatives are available. Here we summarize emerging principles for interagency collaboration. Next, we outline steps a school or other agency might take toward developing an improvement plan. Finally, we point out four pitfalls that social service and educational administrators should avoid, to save time, energy, and funds.

But, first, let's take a brief look at how some communities across the country are trying to encourage interagency cooperation.

Pilot Efforts at Collaboration

Social service personnel, legislators, and educators are coming to realize that the current set of compartmentalized programs are an affront and an injustice to our children. Nationwide, communities are exploring ways to encourage collaboration among agencies and better integrate services. Pilot collaborative projects like the New Futures Initiatives (Dayton, Little Rock, Pittsburgh, and Savannah), New Beginnings in San Diego, and California's countywide efforts in Ventura and San Bernardino Counties reflect this trend. Interagency networks and conferences have also been organized to showcase pilot programs, encourage the sharing of ideas, and persuade agency representatives to join together. New legislation offers incentives and seed money for collaboration.

As we monitor the progress of the pilot efforts, we must bear in mind that a better working relationship among agencies is a means, not an end in itself. What we need is improved services for children, and that—rather than the degree of effort, the level of cooperation between organizations—is what we need to hold agencies accountable for.

As these pioneer efforts unfold, every community can and must begin to create its own interagency collaboration. Just as all politics are local, so will improved services for children develop in the contexts of particular communities, schools, and service agencies. The strategy that helps collaboration in one community may not apply in the next; and the set of agencies involved, or how they connect with schools, may differ from community to community.

Even without "proven models" of interagency collaboration, however, recent experience can give us direction. Having reviewed the recommendations of a number of proponents of interagency collaboration and talked with a variety of practitioners, we can offer here today's best thinking.

Emerging Criteria for Integrated Services

Collaboration can be approached through

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(1) a professional coordinator (or case manager) within a school who might coordinate the services of several agencies and match them with the needs of children; (2) the services of various agencies at the school, selected for easy access and close coordination; or (3) consistent communication and joint projects that allow all educational, mental health, correctional, and other institutions to coordinate with each other. Whatever approach is taken, however, certain basic principles will apply. Interagency collaborations should be comprehensive, preventive, child-centered, and flexible.

Comprehensive. By "comprehensive," we mean that the set of agencies involved should—as a group—provide a wide spectrum of essential services and attempt to meet the most important needs of those most at risk. Rather than concentrate on the single-issue approaches that dominate city and county services now, involved agencies should seek ways to ensure that individual children and families actually receive a coherent program of assistance. Each program needs to take into account the functions of partner agencies and how they fit into an overall matrix. Different approaches to service and the potential for overlap must be considered.

Accomplishing this won't be easy. Long-standing habits and bureaucratic barriers will have to fall. Take the time to learn about other agencies—how they operate and how we can best connect with them. From the individual agency's point of view, there may be no tangible incentive to collaboration; and, in the end, we'll all have to give up some turf.

Preventive. Unfortunately, under the current system, services don't kick in until children are in critical condition. For example, we offer mental health services only for the most emotionally disturbed. Academically, students have to be failing before they are eligible for special help. By then, a student may get so far behind that his or her confidence is shot and ego destroyed.

The challenge is not simply to divide up responsibilities, but to reconceptualize the role of the school and relationships among the school, the community, and the larger society.

A better way would be to create a system that can focus on prevention and accommodate an increasingly diverse group of students—in terms of background, culture, and ways of learning. The system must be able to monitor the progress and development of all children, providing special assistance when needed. In practice, this will probably mean a major overhaul in the regular school program; it may also mean that some person (or group) will need to take primary responsibility for each child: a teacher, social worker, or counselor. Student study teams might be one way to make this work.

We can also begin to shift resources from acute intervention programs into preventive approaches such as prenatal care, health care, day care, and preschool. These might not make a big difference right away; but as the Committee for Economic Development (1985) has pointed out, putting resources into children is an investment, not a cost.

Child-centered. When services are child-centered, the overall needs of the child are given priority over institutional or other concerns. Agencies cooperate to develop the best, most appropriate response; and success is measured by improvement of the child's condition. Single-issue programs slice the child any number of ways without taking a balanced, comprehensive, long-term view of what will really make a difference. When individual programs provide their services in isolation, no one is responsible for checking the overall condition of the child and family. School staffs, Heath and McLaughlin assert, are "notoriously unaware of services available through juvenile justice, social service, or mental health agencies" (1989, p. 309). Even if they suspect a child's school failure is related to problems at home, they don't know where to turn for help.

Kirst and McLaughlin (1989) stress that children's services need to reflect the growing diversity of our child population—diversity not only of ethnicity, language, and culture, but also of needs. Drugs, crime, AIDS, and poverty have become so prevalent that our schools are facing challenges very different from those of 10, or even 5, years ago. Schools must respond with effective assistance.

To move from program-driven to child-centered services, we also need to improve our understanding of children's needs, monitor them over time, and take a broader contextual view of how to help. To do this, we need to come up with improved ways of collecting, maintaining, and sharing data on children. In some agencies, staff don't even know how many kids are receiving what kind of service. Gardner (1989) points out that no city in California really knows how much is being spent on youth services.

Flexible. To get away from the overlapping or conflicting programs we have now, we need to consider alternative ways of applying procedures, assigning staff responsibilities, and designing services—in other words, to build flexibility into services. At present, the services children receive are often predetermined by rigid sets of procedures and regulations. Screening, referral, and the type and length of treatment a child receives are all prescribed from the beginning. If a child is eligible for *x* program, he or she receives *x* service, no matter what; if eligible for *y*,

Collaborating for the Future: *Beyond the Schools* Report

Part I of *Beyond the Schools: How Schools and Communities Must Collaborate to Solve the Problems Facing America's Youth*, a joint report from the National School Boards Association and the American Association of School Administrators, identifies the mounting economic and social problems facing our children and youth—problems that schools alone cannot adequately address. Part II of the 28-page booklet outlines 10 strategies that schools and society, working together, can implement to improve at-risk students' prospects for a successful future and America's chances for remaining "preeminent, economically and politically, in our increasingly interdependent world."

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then that service is provided. A religious adherence to guidelines can cause children to get fragmented, overlapping services.

To be effective, children's services need to break out of this mold and allow service providers to respond to the *child*. Children are complex and can't be divided up into pieces—pieces that don't necessarily add up to the whole.

The way kids are identified and treated can have long-lasting effects on the types of services they receive and, in a larger sense, who they become. Once a child is pigeonholed into a category (dropout, drug abuser, pregnant teen), his or her fate within the system is often sealed. Heath and McLaughlin (1989) even recommend involving children in their own diagnosis and treatment as a way of ensuring the best possible services. When we leave decision making entirely up to adults, important opportunities for helping children may be lost.

Staff roles can also be more flexible. Service providers sometimes may need to step outside the particular boundaries of their job descriptions to make sure that what needs doing gets done. For example, Schorr (1989) suggests ways that service can be continued when staff and clients develop close relationships. Agencies, too, must be able to continue or increase responsibilities from time to time.

Finally, we need to look at how services operate. For example, we might allow staffers to step out of agency boundaries to provide services. They can go to community centers, schools, and even homes to ensure that clients receive close attention. Agencies can also arrange, when necessary, for staff to devote more than the usual amount of time to the children and families they serve. Programs can be set up to draw on a variety of resources and other services, instead of maintaining the narrow-focus approach often found today.

How to Develop Collaboration Among Agencies

Next we offer a step-by-step guide toward streamlining interagency collaboration. The five steps outlined are by no means comprehensive or complete; they are meant to be general guideposts.

Step 1: Map the Territory

The first step toward building collaboration is finding out who the potential (and probable) partners might be. Make an inventory of all the social service agencies that currently interact with the school. For each, list overall purpose, services provided, functions served, and the name and number of a contact person.

Next, try to identify other agencies in the community that aren't currently involved with the schools. Check with the city and county governments for leads. Be sure to include private programs. The famous semanticist Korzybski cautioned that we shouldn't mistake the map for the territory; the picture of social services you have now might not accurately reflect what's really there.

As a final step in mapping the territory, you'll need to figure out which people from the local schools and other agencies you can count on to be the main players in a collaboration effort. Who can work with you and assume some of the responsibilities connected with developing the plan and getting it under way? Whom can you rely on to stay with it? Find these people, and get them on board.

Step 2: Survey the Field

The information we've provided in this brief report only scratches the surface of existing models and strategies. Before you start to make up your own plan, you need to find out what others are doing to improve interagency collaboration. A good place to start is with the references listed here. Next, follow up on your own leads. You've probably already heard of a community or school near you that has begun to explore alternatives for coordinating children's services. Contact them to find out what they've done and whether they have any materials to share. If they sound as if they're succeeding, arrange a visit.

If you're the interagency pioneer in your area and aren't aware of any other efforts nearby, try to find a state or regional network that can point you in the right direction. County agencies and the state department of education are potential resources. The main idea in this phase is simply to learn as much about improving interagency collaboration as you can. Do your homework.

Step 3: Review Current Needs and Services

Once you have an idea of who the players are, it's important to assess the current services for students. What are the most critical needs of students? Are they being met? Does the system have

agreed-upon criteria for who's "at risk"? While individual programs may be available for students having a wide variety of needs, the formal identification, diagnosis, and referral system may focus on only a few symptoms.

Estimate the level of coordination among programs and services. Is there any kind of case management system that will enable someone to have an overview of the number and types of services individual students are receiving?

One way to approach the review is to develop a matrix that matches up needs (academic assistance, personal counseling, substance abuse, employment, health) with various service providers. This should help reveal gaps in service and areas of overlap. Potential roadblocks to coordination (such as regulations or budget requirements) might surface as well.

Step 4: Develop a Plan

A project is only as good as the plan it's based on. No matter how urgent the need to collaborate, taking time for careful planning will pay off in the long run. Pull together a core team of people you feel will devote the time and energy necessary to develop a plan and put it into action. Here are some essential elements of a good plan:

•*Agree on a common vision.* Try to capture your team's shared vision of interagency collaboration. Think about how you would like to see children's services provided. How would agencies and their representatives interact? How would children be identified and served? You might start with the principles outlined above. Are these part of your vision? How could services be made comprehensive, preventive, child-centered, and flexible? Bear in mind that other agencies may bring different perspectives and concerns. These should be expressed early in the course of collaboration to avoid problems with communication later on. Try to keep everyone focused on what is best for children.

From exploring the territory, surveying the field, and evaluating needs and services to creating and launching the plan, cautious planning and thoughtful involvement of people are essential for a successful interagency effort.

•*Set goals and expectations.* Your goals and expectations should operationalize the vision. First, conduct a thorough needs assessment for children and youth in the community. Don't just rely on what planning committee members know—look carefully at the data schools and agencies have collected. Then, to complete the picture, interview or survey administrators, teachers, parents, and students. Next, project the outcomes you can reasonably expect for children, the changes you foresee in how agencies work, and how you'd like interactions among agencies to be. As you work through the planning phase, you will probably want to modify your expectations and refine them. Throughout, the primary focus will likely be on the partner agencies and how they work together to improve the services for children and youth. Keep in mind, however, that each organization will have its own set of needs, priorities, and goals.

Some important goals will reach beyond the agencies involved. For example, the team might want to explore ways to tap outside resources, both public and private. In this case, someone will need to assume the task of monitoring new legislation. Exerting influence on policymakers for future funding might be another goal. For this, you might want to share lessons learned from the collaborative process.

•*Design a comprehensive set of services.* A critical part of the plan will be coming up with the right set of services to meet your needs. Many of these will already be in place; some may need to be enhanced or upgraded; others will have to created from scratch. Pull out the matrix developed in Step 3; then, using the other background information you've gathered, begin to design a set of services that is not only comprehensive, but preventive, flexible, and child-centered.

•*Define the roles for each agency.* A fourth element of planning is to clarify the role that each agency and its representatives will play in the collaborative process. This applies not only to the planning and development stage, but also to the actual integration of services. In planning, try to share assignments fairly; don't let one person shoulder all the responsibility. Build a spirit of collaboration.

Institutional philosophies, imperatives, and expectations must be clearly laid out and communicated, because each agency operates under certain constraints that will affect its participation in the collaborative. Mental health service agencies, for example, are restricted by law from disclosing information about their clients, even though information about parents of at-risk youth may very well be crucial for other agencies as they develop a program for the child. Keep in mind that the heavy caseloads of some agencies may force them to focus only on the most serious cases (Zellman 1990).

What we need is improved services for children, and that— rather than the degree of effort or the level of cooperation between organizations — is what we need to hold agencies accountable for.

•*Chart the action steps.* Formulate steps that the planning committee or task force will follow in order to improve interagency collaboration. It's a good idea to develop a flowchart or timeline that shows what will be done, who will do it, and when it's expected. Make sure the flowchart is jointly developed and agreed upon by all involved agencies. Later, the chart can serve as a guide and a check to make sure each agency is holding up its end and events are on schedule. You might want to include how you will ensure information-sharing and day-to-day communication.

•*Plan an evaluation.* In these times of belt-tightening budgets, accountability takes on added importance. Unfortunately, many people don't think of evaluating their program until after it is well under way and it's too late to gather the necessary data. A good evaluation requires careful planning, and a place to start is the *Evaluator's Handbook* (Herman et al. 1987). Whether you conduct the evaluation yourself or get outside assistance, make sure you're asking both summative (outcome) and formative (project improvement) questions. To get useful answers, you'll need to go beyond the traditional bean-counting of numbers of children served or contact hours. How effective was the collaborative? Is communication improved? Have some of the bureaucratic barriers fallen? Are services for children more effective and timely? How can interagency collaboration be improved? What can increase efficiency and effectiveness? Decide beforehand which data you're going to need to answer your outcomes questions; it'll be much harder to collect it after the fact.

Step 5: Get Started

The main rule for getting started is to start small. Don't expect to have everyone involved in joint projects right away. You are dealing with entrenched habits and practices, so begin with clearly manageable tasks. Schedule monthly or biweekly meetings. Covering the first two phases (map the territory and survey the field) should help the agencies involved learn about each other and establish ties. As you reach the planning phase, think in terms of pilot projects, rather than massive change efforts. You might want to begin with a targeted staff development project designed to build consensus and open up new roles and responsibilities for people.

Pitfalls and Danger Signs

As you embark on an interagency effort, there are at least four pitfalls you should look out for. While they may seem obvious, they have been the undoing of many well-intentioned groups.

NATO (No Action, Talk Only). Interagency collaboration meetings can easily collapse into gripe sessions with little actual follow-up or resolution to client's

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needs and problems. We call this "NATO." Without the likelihood of tangible results, NATO can be demoralizing to all involved. Social service personnel have busy schedules and are often overcommitted. They cannot afford to take time out that's not well spent; unless participants see some potential payoff from the beginning, they'll soon drop out.

Creating an interagency czar or a superagency. Another pitfall to avoid is the establishment of yet a new layer of bureaucracy. As Gardner (1989) has pointed out, many cities, districts, counties, and states have learned very quickly to "play the coordination game". They pay lip service to the new social concern and appear to be coordinating without actually helping kids. Kirst and McLaughlin (1989) also argue against additional bureaucracy. In these days of an astronomical budget deficit and dwindling state, county, and local funds, money is best spent on direct, front-line services.

Information doesn't equal Knowledge doesn't equal Action. In today's world of advanced information technology, we are all too often information-rich but knowledge-poor. Information does not automatically become knowledge. Emotional readiness and active mental work are required before facts and data can be absorbed, digested, and turned into personal knowledge. As you gather information about other agencies and what they do, keep in mind that this inventory is only a beginning.

A number of organizations have sponsored successful conferences, pulling together parents, teachers, administrators, and public and private community agency personnel to exchange information about their various concerns, needs, and services. Unfortunately, the sponsoring agency often considers its mission accomplished when the participants head home; plans begin for the next annual conference. We need to take the time, collaboratively, to figure out what we've learned.

Action, or follow-up, is the third part of the equation. The distance between knowledge and action is great; even when we have the necessary knowledge to accomplish a task, it takes still more hard work and motivational force to act effectively on what we know.

An excess of jargon. If you've ever attended a meeting where different agencies were represented, you may have encountered a parade of acronyms, such as DPSS, CWA, WIG, SARB, SART, SAR, LEP, NEP, or professional jargon such as Chapter 1 or Chapter 2 programs, 601 or 602 schools.

To avoid this *jargon-naut,* we must take care to speak plainly and clearly, in the spirit of true collaboration, without taking refuge in the opaque security of our own bureaucratese. However familiar our own acronyms may be to us, they're probably meaningless to those from other agencies.

Collaborative Efforts for Lasting Success

As educators, we know that schools can no longer afford to go it alone. The same is true for social service agencies. Collaborative efforts between schools and other community sectors require careful attention to the proper conditions for safeguarding and bettering the child's education and welfare and to the relationships between school and nonschool personnel. Instant collaboration may bring instant gratification, but it is not likely to bring lasting success. Instead, careful planning, combined with thoughtful involvement of people and places, is essential for the kind of school-community collaboration that leads to improved well-being for all children and youth at risk.

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[1] The Students At Risk Program at Far West Laboratory is gathering information on promising approaches to interagency collaboration. Future work will include documentation of these experiments, dissemination, and technical assistance to schools, districts, and states.

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Teenagers, Clothes, and Gang Violence

By bringing the school into the community and vice versa, we may be able to offer young people a positive alternative to membership in gangs to provide the security they lack at home.

JIM BURKE

Students cannot learn if they do not feel safe. No matter how you define safety—emotional or physical—it is a necessity in both the school and the classroom. While this seems obvious, perhaps even unnecessary to point out, the fact is that the school is becoming an arena of increasingly serious and constant violence.

And this violence no longer limits itself to the inner city. Witness the fiasco at San Leandro High School in the fall of 1990, where 3 to 20 students (depending on whom you talk to) were injured in a riot stemming from racial tensions that had erupted on that particular day. At a Bay Area high school near San Francisco, a locker search following some trouble yielded 62 guns, more than 40 of which turned up in girls' lockers. Recently, two students from my own school, a suburban school in the East Bay, entered the parking lot of a nearby convenience store to buy their lunch: one of them left in an ambulance, unconscious. He had been savagely beaten by 10 to 15 students while reportedly out cold—all this over a girl one of the gangsters went out with. One of my own students currently hides from a gang from a neighboring town because he is dating a girl whose ex-boyfriend is in a gang. Last week a freshman in another of my classes told me her boyfriend had been robbed of his Raiders jacket while the thief held a gun to his head. She herself reports having been shot at several weeks ago

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Burke, J. (1991, September). Teenagers, Clothes, and Gang Violence. *Educational Leadership*, 49(1), pp. 11-13. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

for wearing black and red—colors associated with a gang not welcome where she was.

Gang Members and Clothes

To become better informed as we attempt to manage these new and difficult problems, my school recently invited Joe Angeles to speak with our faculty on the topic of gangs. Angeles works with the Alameda County schools as a sort of gang guru, having a background in law enforcement, counseling, and education. At our meeting, he focused on the clothes these youths wear. At our school, and the surrounding area, Raiders jackets can mark one as a member of an exclusive club, which the kids may or may not define as a gang. I find many of these students in my English classes. Curious, I asked Angeles what distinguished the actual gang member from the kid who liked to wear Raiders regalia. He said that the gang member wears the prescribed clothes intentionally, hoping by means of his dress to communicate publicly his membership with a group to those around him; the gang member will frequently alter or individualize his clothes—having his nickname embroidered on, or writing his gang's name under, the bill of his hat. Such a "uniform" will, if the individual shows up in the wrong place, put him in danger should he come into contact with a rival gang. Related to this, I would add, is the degree to which such students are willing to go to protect their comrades who wear similar "membership only" items of clothing.

The role of females in these groups is especially troubling. Why would such nice young women as fill two of my classes spend their time with boys who, as Angeles said, see them only as "objects, possessions, holders of illicit goods"? In an era when the role and esteem of women in our society should be on the rise, why do these girls seek such subservience, such emotional, if not physical, degradation? Perhaps it is because they, too, want protection. Or they are afraid to say, "No, I won't hold your drugs or keep your gun in my locker."

Students who belong to The Great Disconnected try to create their own families because so many of them have no family at home that provides them with affection, with a sense of belonging.

Kids Need Security at Home

A recent report by the National Center for Health Statistics attempts to lay full blame for many of these children's troubles on their parents—specifically, single parents. An article from the *Chicago Tribune*, discussing the findings of this report, summed it up well: "Emotional and behavioral problems were two to three times higher among children in single-parent homes or in families with one step-parent."[1] This tells me these parents may be absent both physically and emotionally from their children's lives, that they may pay little or no attention to the kids their child hangs out with or what they wear.

When these parents go shopping for Christmas or birthday presents to compensate for their absence, will they buy the requested Raiders, or Kings, or other sports team jacket? Most of these kids do not purchase these items with their own money. Parents must be aware of what their children wear, especially if an item of clothing seems to indicate some connection to other kids they see around. What kids wear can put them in danger today.

Security is a feeling that should begin at home; it begins with children knowing their parent or parents are watching out for them. If they feel no security from home, they will seek it elsewhere.

Kids Create Their Own "Families"

Every other week, for 10 minutes at the end of the day, I supervise the area at our school where cars come to pick up students. It is here that the students who belong to The Great Disconnected—who signify their membership by wearing their large black Raiders jackets and black and red clothes—"hang" with each other. Week after week, I see these kids trying to create their own families. They do this because so many of them have no family at home that provides them with affection, with a sense of belonging. They feel that no one at home cares about them so much that they would smash someone who insulted them, as their Raiders-jacketed friends would do.

I think of the things I've read earlier in the day in the journals of some of these same students. What they spelled out for me was that they do not feel safe alone in our society. So they resort to the purchased security of a certain jacket and run with others who feel similarly ostracized from school, friends who lead friends far from the security that a good education might provide. They hope that if they wear a Raiders jacket, some lunatic who has a gun in his or her locker will leave them alone. What they fail to understand is that the Raiders jacket or the Ben Davis work shirt or the red bandanna—or whatever it is—is often a signal that sends fear or anger into the other kid, who runs for his gun, his bat, his friends, so that he, too, can feel safe in a school where they all feel too scared or distracted to learn or participate in the larger community of the school.

Bridges from the School to the Community

We cannot create some national curriculum that will magically solve the need for safety, for membership in the community. Nor can we, in most cases, involve the family in such a way as would improve the "curriculum" of the home. We can, however, develop a curriculum that incorporates the school into the community and gets the community into the schools. We can make positive rites of passage available to students through various programs at school that, we hope, will draw them away from the hazardous rites of passage they now seek out. These connections would provide students with a sense of belonging to the society; they would also, significantly, impress upon the community the realization that these kids are not villains, but their kids, *our* kids.

We must also look to the thousands of teachers who daily perform acts of personal kindness and work to bring such teens into the fold. It is teachers, more than anyone, who are in a position to erect these bridges to the community. And, if built, such bridges will bring students like Richard—one of my freshmen who recently returned from jail for a gang-related assault—into the community, where they can see, as he did recently, his picture in the newspaper, the community recognizing him, along with other students, for his work with a group of retired older adults. It is only by providing a positive, humane, and safe "gang" of youths who participate in the community and are recognized by the community that we will get them away from the other gangs that spread the fear we all feel.

[1] R. Kotulak. (December 9, 1990). "Survey Links Youth Problems to One-Parent Families." *San Francisco Examiner*, p. A-5 (This article originally appeared in the Chicago Tribune).

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Where Is School Along the Path to Prison?

Schools that offer comprehensive early intervention programs for antisocial youths and their families may save them from spending their lives in costly human warehouses.

HILL WALKER AND
ROBERT SYLWESTER

Where is school along the road for those who seem bound for prison? It's merely a way station for most. Juvenile criminal behavior has risen dramatically in the U.S. over the past three decades. Young people, who represent about 20 percent of the population, now account for over 40 percent of the reported crimes. Almost half of the youth charged with serious offenses are under 15, and 75 percent are boys.

Antisocial and aggressive behavior is also escalating in schools, where boys are responsible for 90 percent of such behavior. Schools move many antisocial adolescents from mainstream classrooms into school-based, specialized placements or home tutoring programs, or they suspend them. But by and large, such one-dimensional approaches to a multidimensional problem have proven ineffective in preventing the eventual criminal careers of these children.

Precursors to Criminal Behavior

The research evidence is strong that young boys who are extremely antisocial will probably be arrested during adolescence (Loeber 1982, 1985). Gerald Patterson and his colleagues at the Oregon Social Learning Center have spent three decades studying the behavior patterns and family characteristics of such children. They discovered that the single best predictor of adolescent criminal behavior is a long established pattern of early school antisocial behavior. This is especially true if the antisocial behavior occurs in many different settings and involves several types of antisocial acts (Patterson and Bank 1986).

Patterson's group also observed another very important step that such boys take on the road to criminal behavior: During the intermediate grades, antisocial students tend to develop peer groups with values that support delinquent antisocial acts. A member of such a deviant group has an almost 70 percent chance of experiencing a first felony arrest within two years.

Many of these students live in poverty-stricken, dysfunctional homes with parents who have limited parenting skills. These families often experience extreme stress, and this severely disrupts the parents' ability to monitor and discipline their children.

Predicting Adolescent Arrests

In 1984, Hill Walker joined Patterson and his colleagues in a longitudinal study of two groups of 5th grade antisocial boys. The study sought to determine (1) the possibility of predicting which of the antisocial boys would be arrested during adolescence and (2) the factors that led to their antisocial behavior.

The study initially identified 200 5th grade boys (from a school population of several thousand 5th grade boys) who appeared to be at elevated risk for antisocial behavior. The study then focused on the 40 most serious cases and on a

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Walker, H. & Sylwester, R. (1991, September). Where is School Along the Path to Prison? *Educational Leadership*, *49*(1), pp. 14-16. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

control group of 40 who were randomly selected from the remaining 160 5th grade boys.

Dramatic differences emerged between the two groups of at-risk boys over the next 7 years. For example, by the 7th grade, 21 of the 40 most antisocial boys had been arrested 68 times for criminal behavior, while only three boys in the control group had been arrested (and each only once). Further, the 5th grade behavior of the very antisocial group was highly predictive of their arrest status up to five years later; and their general behavior pattern tended to get worse as they progressed through school (Walker et al. 1990).

This consistent pattern occurred in spite of the best efforts of their school and related social agencies to deal with the problems these students presented. The chronic nature of this behavior pattern is a strong indication of its resistance to attempts to improve it. Highly aggressive antisocial behavior is nearly as stable over a decade as I.Q., with correlations of approximately .60 (Quay and Wherry 1986).

Our longitudinal data suggest that three rather simple measures would have predicted the arrest record of nearly 80 percent of the boys in our study who have been arrested to date: (1) teacher ratings of social skills, (2) total negative playground behavior of the boy and his playmates, and (3) discipline contacts with the principal's office (as measured by written file records).

This study also found differences in the parenting skills of the parents of the two groups of boys. The parents of the very antisocial boys were ineffective and inconsistent in their discipline, ignoring an infraction on one occasion and harshly punishing it on another. They were not involved in their children's lives as playmate, mentor, role model, or advocate. They didn't encourage their children and didn't positively manage or interact with them. Finally, they didn't have the minimal problem-solving and conflict-resolution skills that are essential to meet the challenges of their daily home and work lives.

> **The single best predictor of adolescent criminal behavior is a long established pattern of early school antisocial behavior.**

A Bleak Future

These most antisocial students can look forward to bleak adolescent and adult lives. They'll probably experience substantial difficulty in adapting to school and vocational settings. They can expect more mental and physical illnesses and problems with social relationships than other people. Further, any children they have will have a high probability of continuing this pattern of antisocial behavior and criminality, since antisocial behavior tends to flow through generations like child abuse.

In coping with antisocial behavior, the school is caught in the middle of a difficult situation that demands far more of its energy, for relatively limited results, than the small number of antisocial students should suggest. Our society can't expect the school to solve this problem alone since it also affects all aspects of the antisocial student's home and community life. However, antisocial students are such a continuously unpleasant and disruptive force at school that educators are motivated to assume leadership in the search for a solution.

What Schools Can Do

The situation isn't hopeless. The federally funded longitudinal study discussed above has recently expanded its focus to begin a long-term study of the effectiveness of an early and vigorous home/school intervention program for preventing antisocial behavior. The primary intervention lasts about a year; but follow-up interventions that are less intensive can continue for several years, until a student's problems are stabilized. This longitudinal study will eventually develop a complete package of specific assessment and remediation programs for each of its areas of intervention. And the resource section at the end of this article includes recommended existing programs drawn from current sources that address this problem.

What is emerging in the field is the conviction that a successful comprehensive intervention program for antisocial behavior should contain the following elements:

1. Schools should take the lead in setting up and coordinating the home/school, behavioral intervention program.

2. The school should monitor student behavior carefully so that it can begin the intervention process as soon as a student's antisocial behavior indicators emerge.

3. A brief parent training program should focus on five basic parenting practices: how to (a) closely monitor a child's whereabouts, activities, and friends; (b) actively participate in a child's life; (c) use such positive techniques as encouragement, praise, and approval to manage a child's home behavior; (d) ensure that discipline is fair, timely, and appropriate to the offense; and (e) use effective conflict-resolution and problem-solving strategies.

4. The program should help parents (a) set up home reward systems that provide incentives for the child to achieve academic success and to behave appropriately at school and (b) encourage their child to develop a positive attitude toward school.

5. A tracking/monitoring system for school and home should provide daily two-way communication about the student's performance at school and parental acknowledgment of that performance.

6. The school program should teach the personal, academic, and social skills that the at-risk student needs for school success. This instructional program should be accompanied by unobtrusive but sensitive school monitoring systems that measure progress.

7. The school should establish a program of peer and teacher mentors who take an active interest in the antisocial, at-risk student's school success.

Toward Durable Change

The most promising intervention programs are those that include a strong family intervention component *and* direct intervention procedures that are simultaneously applied to the student's school behavior. As we develop and field-test our own program, we expect to develop clear evidence that such a seemingly complex approach to antisocial behavior can succeed—and that it will actually be socially and financially cost-effective. Our society now spends the equivalent of a living wage for criminals to endure their adult years in human warehouses. A fraction of that cost spent on a massive early intervention program could move them toward much more productive adult lives.

The most promising intervention programs are those that include a strong family intervention component *and* direct intervention procedures that are simultaneously applied to the student's school behavior.

Authors' note: This research was supported by a Prevention Intervention Research Center (PIRC) grant from the National Institute of Mental Health to the Oregon Social Learning Center for its study on the prevention of conduct disorders in elementary-aged students (John Reid, Project Director).

Resources

The best current source of information on clinical, family-based interventions for this population is Alan Kazdin's *Treatment of Antisocial Behavior* (Dorsey Press 1985). The best current source on school intervention procedures for this population is D. Morgan and W. Jenson's *Teaching Behaviorally Disordered Students: Prefered Practices* (Merrill 1988).

Some recommended currently available parent education programs are G. R. Patterson's *Families* (Research Press, Champaign, Ill., 1971) and G. R. Patterson and M. Forgatch's *Parents and Adolescents Together: The Basics, Part I* (Castalia Press, Eugene, Ore., 1987).

A good source of useful information on home reward systems to support school achievement and adjustment is M. Kelley's *School-Home Notes: Promoting Children's Classroom Success* (Guilford Press, New York, 1990).

Some fine school-based programs for teaching personal, academic, and social skills are:

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Sorting Out the Self-Esteem Controversy

In the '90s, the question is not whether schools should enhance students' self-esteem, but how they propose to do so.

JAMES A. BEANE

The idea of enhancing self-esteem seems innocent enough to most people. Common sense suggests that those who have positive self-esteem are likely to lead satisfying lives while those who do not are just as likely to find life dissatisfying and unhappy. Yet, like so many other seemingly commonsensical things, the idea of self-esteem has become a source of considerable controversy and contention in the school context. So it is that, as we enter the 1990s, another "great debate" is emerging. This one is about whether schools ought to try to enhance self-esteem and, if so, how, on what grounds, and to what extent.[1]

That the school might play a role in the development of self-esteem is not a recent idea. It has been part of educational thinking for most of this century, particularly since the 1960s, when many educators came to realize that affect in general and self-esteem specifically loom large in school life.[2] But it was in the 1980s that self-esteem was catapulted into educational policy thinking. It became linked not only to academic achievement but also to substance abuse, antisocial acts, adolescent pregnancy, suicide, and other self-destructive behaviors. The theory was this: people, including the young, will not hurt themselves if they like themselves. Moreover, if they have self-confidence, they are more likely to do well at whatever they might try to do.

This theory has driven many states and school districts to add development of self-esteem to their list of goals. It also served as the underlying theme of the notorious California self-esteem project that simultaneously appealed to the most humane impulses of some while offending the Puritan streak of self-denial that still runs deep in the values of others.[3] Meanwhile, in the schools, the terrain is cluttered with conflicting and contradictory theories about self-esteem and ways to enhance it. The purpose of this article is to sort out this "mess" and to make some sense out of the idea of enhancing self-esteem in schools.

Why Enhance Self-Esteem?

The argument for enhancing self-esteem in schools follows three lines of reasoning. The first speaks to the school's role as a social agency that is meant to contribute to the general health and well-being of young people. We are living in very complex times. This is the age of discontinuity and disbelief, of ambiguity and ambivalence. As difficult as it is for so many adults to find anything to hang on to, we can only imagine what this age looks like through the eyes of young people who typically lack the resources that are available to most adults. The litany of statistics about self-destructive tendencies such as substance abuse, crime, and suicide must surely be seen as a signal from young people that many do not find much about themselves to like. The idea of enhancing self-esteem becomes a moral imperative for schools, especially in a time when other social institutions and agencies seem unwilling or unable to provide support and encouragement in the process of growing up.

The second line of reasoning is found within the school itself. When we look at the growing collection of studies on self-esteem, we find a persistent correlation between it and such school concerns as participation, completion, self-direction, and various types of achievement. This last correlation, between self-esteem and achievement, is a driving force in the growing interest in self-esteem. Nonetheless, it is widely misunderstood. The correlation is relatively weak when global self-esteem is involved but strong when self-esteem is situation-specific, as in the case, for example, of self-esteem in mathematics, reading, physical education, or some other area.[4] This link between self-esteem and school concerns ought to persuade those who have trouble with the moral argument that they, too, have a vested interest in enhancing self-esteem.

The third line of reasoning is less often used, yet more powerful. It extends the idea of personal development beyond coping with problems and into personal efficacy or power, which, in turn, may lead toward action.[5] Only the most ignorant or arrogant could fail to see that we face increasing problems with inequitable distribution of wealth, power, and justice. Conditions like racism, sexism, poverty, and homelessness detract from human dignity and for that reason debilitate one of its central features, self-esteem. The resolution of these issues will depend less on rhetoric and more on action, but action is not likely unless people believe they can

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Beane, J. A. (1991, September). Sorting Out the Self-Esteem Controversy. *Educational Leadership, 49*(1), pp. 25-30. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum

make a difference.

When looked at this way, enhancing self-esteem helps build the personal and collective efficacy that helps us out of the morass of inequity that plagues us. Needless to say, the hint of social reconstructionism in this line of reasoning may account for its absence in most of the rhetoric of the self-esteem movement. Nevertheless it is a powerful argument for the schools, which have a responsibility to extend democracy, human dignity, and cultural diversity throughout the larger society.

Versions of Self-Esteem in School

Over the past few decades, the idea of enhancing self-esteem in schools has become increasingly popular. True, many school officials have questioned the idea by contending they have enough on their hands, with the deluge of mandates coming down from state legislatures, without having to take on issues that ought to be addressed by the home and other "socializing" agencies. Certainly not all of these people are uncaring toward young people; often they speak out of frustration over multiplying demands placed upon the school and taking the flack for any lack of progress on these demands. Even so, such protests have diminished as the evidence linking self-esteem and school success has grown.

Now the issue is not *whether* the schools should try to enhance the self-esteem of young people, but *how*. It is here that we encounter the cluttered terrain of conflicting and contradictory methods for enhancing self-esteem. There are three main approaches that account for most efforts in this area.

The first approach follows from personal development activities, such as sensitivity training, that enjoyed some popularity in the late 1960s and early 1970s. To envision how this approach is practiced, we might picture a teacher and a group of students sitting in a circle talking about how much they like themselves and everyone else for 20 minutes on a Wednesday afternoon. Such activities are like parlor games of pop psychology and, no doubt, have about the same momentary effects in real life. Saying "I like myself and others" in front of a group is not necessarily the same as actually feeling that way, especially if I am only doing it because I am supposed to. Being nice has a place in enhancing self-esteem, but it is not enough.

The link between self-esteem, achievement and a sense of personal efficacy is tipping the balance in favor of a curriculum that will enhance students' self-esteem, yet there is no simple formula for achieving such a goal.

The second approach involves putting young people through a self-esteem pro-

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gram or course offered in a set-aside time slot during the school day. Here the teacher comes armed with more than good feelings, namely a self-esteem "curriculum," locally prepared or commercially purchased, assuring that students who go through the program will have better self-esteem and thus be immune to self-destructive behaviors and school failure. In 1970 Weinstein and Fantini estimated that there were at least 350 such programs with about 3,000 "affective exercises and techniques."[6] The number may be greater now, although I estimate that about 30 are widely known and used.[7] That schools would buy a package to enhance self-esteem is not surprising when we remember that the commodification of the self was an idea promoted in the 1980s. If "we are what we buy," then perhaps we can also buy our way into self-esteem.

The "self-esteem program" approach suffers from two problems, one practical and the other conceptual. Hartshorne and May, in the late 1920s, showed that direct instruction in course-like settings does not produce lasting or strong effects in the affective domain.[8] While their research focused on character education, similar conclusions were drawn more recently by Lockwood and others in reviewing studies on values clarification and moral development.[9] Aside from glowing testimonials by participants (which cannot be completely disregarded) after self-esteem programs, there is scant evidence to warrant claims made by program developers.

Current research suggests that one area in which packaged programs evidence little short-term gain is "self in school."[10] This may seem hard to believe when we remember that such programs are sponsored and taught in schools by school personnel. Yet why would we expect otherwise if there is no guarantee that anyone in any other place in the school will care much about newfound self-esteem, personal goals, or decision-making skills?

Saying "I like myself and others" in front of a group is not necessarily the same as actually feeling that way, especially if I am only doing it because I am supposed to.

Beyond that, self-esteem programs suffer from a conceptual problem that they share with most personal development programs. Their underlying theory is that to enhance self-esteem we must go inside individuals and encourage them to push ahead with confidence, even in the face of difficult odds. Such an inside-out approach ignores the fact that in the balance of interactions between the individual and the environment out of which self-esteem grows, the environment is almost inevitably more powerful. If we want to enhance self-esteem, we must first check to see whether the social environment is safe for the individual. A debilitating environment is likely to squash fledgling self-confidence no matter how much we exhort the individual to persist. We may all know individuals who have defied this rule, but the fact that we can name them suggests they are the exception rather than the rule.

Since the environment powerfully informs their self-perceptions, insisting that young people are responsible for their own self-esteem is blatantly unjust. Moreover, suggesting that self-esteem can be preserved by developing "coping skills" endorses the status quo and, in so doing, ignores the fact that having positive self-esteem is almost impossible for many young people, given the deplorable conditions under which they are forced to live by the inequities in our society.

The third approach to enhancing self-esteem in school recognizes the power of the environment and searches for possibilities across the whole institution.[11] Every nook and cranny in the school has the potential to enhance or debilitate self-esteem. For example, a school that enhances self-esteem could be characterized by a humanistic and democratic climate, student participation in governance, heterogeneous grouping, and positive expectations. In the areas of curriculum and teaching, a premium would be placed upon collaborative teacher-student planning, cooperative learning, thematic units that emphasize personal and social meanings, student self-evaluation, multicultural content, community service projects, and activities that involve making, creating, and "doing." This approach also emphasizes the need to enhance adults' self-esteem, particularly teachers', since it is unlikely they can contribute to positive self-esteem in young people if their own is negative.

Proponents of this third approach recognize that even our most salutary efforts in the area of self-esteem are threatened by poor conditions outside the school. To what extent can we expect progress within the school to stand up in the face of poverty, homelessness, racism, sexism, and ageism?[12] Hence, we must place the larger community and society under the same scrutiny as the school, so that we may see what work is needed there.

The Great Self-Esteem Debate

Recently the argument over which approach to use in enhancing self-esteem has been overshadowed by a much larger debate concerning the assumption that positive self-esteem is necessary for school achievement. Three factors fuel this debate. First, it seems that while young people in South Korea and Japan score higher than those in the United States on international comparison tests in mathematics, the U.S. students come out on top in measures of self-esteem. Second, there has been considerable backlash against the California task force report on self-esteem, which is

If schooling for self-esteem does not simultaneously address other aspects of affect as well as cognition, it is incomplete and artificial.

seen by many people as an unsupported statement of New Age, pop psychology "fluff."''[13] Third, the present Conservative Restoration in education and elsewhere rings with the rhetoric of self-denial that those of the New Right believe is necessary for "repairing" the "frayed" moral fabric of society.[14] Put together, these factors make a superficially convincing argument against the usual view of enhancing self-esteem, yet one that can be packaged in neat slogans like the title of a *Time* magazine commentary, "Education: Doing Bad and Feeling Good."''[15]

However, when this rhetoric is examined, its transparency is revealed. For example, I asked some South Korean, Japanese, and Chinese educators to explain how they might account for the inverse correlation between self-esteem and mathematics scores reported from the international comparisons of achievement. Their uncomplicated answer was this: "In our cultures it is impolite to say one can do well, even if one thinks so." While this is not evidence to end the argument, it at least raises the question of whether United States' students are arrogant incompetents or victims of criticism based upon culturally embedded differences in educational findings.[16]

As for the other two factors, we might easily write off the first as an interpretation of a report (that of the California Task Force) that represents a sometimes unclear vision of enhancing self-esteem[17] and the second as another piece of the belt-tightening rhetoric of 1980s educational "reform." We might further ask when and how young people were excluded from the right to be happy. And one might facetiously suggest that the international tests indicate that we who value self-esteem are doing a good job with it while those enamored with academic achievement are not pulling their weight. These criticisms should not be taken so lightly, however, because they have deeper implications.

First, by focusing only on the pop psychology school of enhancing self-esteem, these criticisms ignore other versions which are quite different from it. In so doing, the very idea of self-esteem enhancement is threatened by the same red-flag mentality that fails to differentiate between the cross-curriculum values clarification theory and the collections of cute activities, like the venerable "lifeboat" simulation, that ruined its reputation.

Even more dangerous is the kind of statement made by critic Mike Schmoker: "Self-esteem, as it is now used, isn't something earned, but given."''[18] The fact is that it is neither. In its practical form, self-esteem is personally constructed out of interactions with the environment; in other words, it is learned. At a conceptual level self-esteem is a central feature in human dignity and thus an inalienable human entitlement.[19] As such, schools and other agencies have a moral obligation to help build it and avoid debilitating it. The "no pain, no gain" metaphor may be justified in the weight room, but it is dangerous in human development, especially when pain is already inequitably distributed and gain so inequitably accessible. The failure to recognize the obligation to enhance self-esteem works harshly against all young people, but particularly so against those in our society who are least privileged.

So that I do not seem to be imagining this last point, another illustration from the self-esteem critics might be helpful. One of the more obvious ways to contribute to clear self-concept and positive self-esteem is to expand curriculum content in ways that include the stories of diverse cultures so that more young people can see themselves as part of what is valued in the school's curriculum. Yet Krauthammer, for example, extends his concern about self-esteem enhancement into an attack on multicultural inclusion in the curriculum. Among other things, he claims "there is little to be said . . . about the contribution of women to the Bill of Rights."[20] Perhaps so, but there is much to be said about why; and young people, especially women, should not be denied the opportunity to find out. Nor should all young people, especially Native Americans, be left ignorant of the influence of the "Great Law of the Iroquois" on early documents of white, United States democracy like the Articles of Confederation and the Bill of Rights.[21] Criticism of multicultural education and its connection to self-esteem is a thinly veiled version of the Eurocentric arrogance that has marred schools and is unbecoming in a culturally diverse society.

I believe that the "Great Debate" over self-esteem at this level should be seen for exactly what it is: a part of the tug-of-war between the long line of progressive efforts to create humane schools and the new Conservative Restoration that grew up in the 1980s. The latter is not a unidimensional movement. It is a package that involves interrelated interests of economic utilitarianism, classical Eurocentric humanism, and old-line "get tough" pedagogy. There is little room for the idea of enhancing self-esteem beyond its relation to individual achievement, especially as it is broadly defined in the context of personal efficacy and the resolution of large social inequities. This package marginalizes the same nonprivileged young people upon whom the schools have always worked most harshly and continues the unjust status they have historically been assigned.

In saying this, I do not mean to glorify or over-romanticize the self-esteem "movement." Many of those involved

It is not enough that young people like themselves. They must also have a sense that what they say, and think, and do counts for something.

in it still fail to differentiate between self-concept (the description of self) and self-esteem (the evaluation of self) or to understand the intricate role played by values in self-esteem judgments.[22] Efforts to improve self-perceptions must contribute to the quality of all three dimensions. For example, multicultural education and cooperative learning have as much to do with expanding the concept of self and promoting the value of interdependence as they do with self-esteem. Critics such as those cited above apparently do not understand this, but their analyses seem all the more accurate when people inside the schools also do not.

Moreover, as I have pointed out, the self-esteem movement is still full of the kind of fluff and radical individualism that is as threatening to authentic progressivism as the conservative restoration. In fact, the overly individualistic tendencies of many self-esteem programs and projects play right into the hands of that restoration by focusing on self-protection mechanisms rather than the environment that creates their need. This is, of course, "privatizing" at its extreme. It is a theory of alienation that pits the individual against the world.

Beyond the "Mess"

In retrospect, it may seem ironic that the idea of enhancing self-esteem would become a buzzword amidst the hardening of academic categories in the 1980s. As we have seen, however, this should not be surprising since that idea has many different meanings, some of which fit rather well with the Horatio Alger reform notions in the last decade. The important question now focuses on what we will do to find our way out of the confusion and contradiction that has arisen.

I suggest that we stop seeing self-esteem only in individualistic terms and move instead toward an integrated view of self and social relations. This transition would involve at least three main parts. First, the construction of personal meanings should be understood as emerging from interactions with the environment. Self-perceptions are a central feature of human personality from which flow many social manifestations, but environment powerfully informs self-perceptions. Moreover, it is clear that people do not learn about themselves either apart from or prior to learning about their world. Rather, they learn about both simultaneously and in light of their interdependence.

Second, self-esteem is properly seen as one dimension of the larger concept of affect that also involves values, morals, ethics, character, and the like, and is connected to cognition. By itself, self-esteem addresses only part of what Dewey called the "affective-ideational" connection that underlies social relations.[23] When we make self-esteem decisions, we do so on the basis of our values.[24] Moreover, such decisions involve thinking; they may be more or less thoughtful, but they are not empty of thought.[25] Thus, if schooling for self-esteem does not simultaneously address other aspects of affect as well as cognition, it is incomplete and artificial.

Third, self-esteem alone is an incomplete definition of the concept of human dignity upon which work on self-esteem is partly justified. It is not enough that young people like themselves. They must also have a sense that what they say, and think, and do counts for something. In other words, self-esteem must be accompanied by a sense of personal efficacy. But even that is not enough. Individuals do not live in isolation, and to imply such is dangerous. Personal efficacy must be connected to collective efficacy so that individuals see themselves as part of groups that can and do have meaning and power. In making this point, I am connecting the idea of enhancing self-esteem to the broader themes of democracy, human dignity, and cultural diversity—themes that ostensibly permeate the lives of those in our society.[26]

What does this mean for schools' role in enhancing self-esteem? It means they must place a premium on authentic participation, collaborative action, a problem-centered curriculum, and interdependent diversity. Likewise, they should work to remove policies and practices that can debilitate self-esteem like tracking, autocratic procedures, unicultural curriculum, and competition.

This kind of effort is not without controversy. After all, it suggests that people not only feel good about themselves, but also come to believe they can change things. Perhaps it is here that the gatekeepers of the school as well as the advocates of the conservative restoration sense the real problem with self-esteem. Perhaps it is here, too, that we may understand the individualistic "coping strategies" of packaged programs as something of a failure of nerve. Work with self-esteem that promotes integration of self and social interests *and* personal and social efficacy offers the possibility that young people will challenge the status quo, not simply accept it. Besides, the very idea of packaged programs seems largely inappropriate for any genuine work with self-esteem.

In the end we are faced with some very serious challenges. Finding our way out of the self-esteem "mess" must begin with several understandings. First, being nice is surely a part of this effort, but it is not enough. Second, there is a place for some direct instruction regarding affective matters, but this is not enough either. Self-esteem and affect are not simply another school subject to be placed in set-aside time slots. Third, the negative affect of "get tough" policies is not a promising route to self-esteem and efficacy. This simply blames young people for problems that are largely not of their own making. Fourth, since self-perceptions are powerfully informed by culture, comparing self-esteem across cultures without clarifying cultural differences is distracting and unproductive.

Authentic work in the area of self-esteem is more complex than most people, including participants in the great debate, have been willing to admit. It involves broadening our understanding of the reasons behind such work, extending the definition of self-esteem into a larger concept of affect that integrates self and social interests, extending self-enhancement efforts across the entire school, and relating the work of the school with the larger world of conditions that detract from human dignity. Self-esteem is not just a psychological construct. It also has meaning for creating and understanding the philosophical and sociological themes that permeate our lives. Clearly, enhancing self-esteem is not the soft or simple work that so many people believe it to be.

Clearly, enhancing self-esteem is not the soft or simple work that so many people believe it to be.

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[1] See, for example, A. W. Combs, ed., (1962), *Perceiving, Behaving Becoming: A New Focus for Education*, (Washington, D.C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development).

[2] California Task Force to Promote Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility, (1990), *Toward a State of Esteem*, (Sacramento: State of California). The report was supplemented by a larger volume: A. M. Mecca, N. S. Smelser, and J. Vasconellos, (1989), *The Social Importance of Self-Esteem*, (Berkeley: University of California Press).

[3] See, for example, W. W. Purkey, (1970), *Self-Concept and School Achievement*, (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall); M. Rosenberg, (1979), *Conceiving the Self*, (New York: Basic Books); and J. A. Beane and R. P. Lipka, (1986), *Self-Concept, Self-Esteem and the Curriculum*, (New York: Teachers College Press).

[4] B. M. Byrne, (1984), "The General/Academic Self-Concept Nomological Network: A Review of Construct Validation Research," *Review of Educational Research* 54: 427-456.

[5] J. A. Beane, (1990), *Affect in the Curriculum: Toward Democracy, Dignity, and Diversity*, (New York: Teachers College Press).

[6] G. Weinstein and M. D. Fantini, (1970), *Toward Humanistic Education: A Curriculum of Affect*, (New York: Praeger).

[7] A content analysis of many of theses is included in A. M. Kaiser-Carlso, (1986), *A Program Description and Analysis of Self-Esteem Programs for the Junior High School*, (Santa Clara, Calif.: Educational Development Center).

[8] H. Hartshorne and M. A. May, (1928, 1929, 1930, respectively), *Studies in the Nature of Character: Volume I, Studies in Deceit, Volume II, Studies in Service and Self-Control, Volume III* (with F. K. Shuttleworth): *Studies in the Organization of Character*, (New York: Macmillan.)

[9] See, for example, A. L. Lockwood, (1978), "The Effects of Values Clarification and Moral Development Curricula on School-Age Subjects: A Critical Review of Research," *Review of Educational Research* 48: 325-64; J. S. Leming, (1981), "Curricular Effectiveness in Value/Moral Education," *Journal of Moral Education* 10: 147-64.

[10] See, for example, P. E. Crisci, (1986), "The Quest National Center: A Focus on Prevention of Alienation," *Phi Delta Kappan* 67: 440-42.

[11] See, for example, Beane and Lipka, op. cit.

[12] C. Krauthammer, (February 5, 1990), "Education: Doing Bad and Feeling Good," *Time*, p. 78.

[13] See, for example, J. Leo, (April 2, 1990), "The Trouble With Self-Esteem," *U.S. News and World Report*, p. 16. The California report was also a target, on these same grounds, of *Doonesbury* cartoonist Gary Trudeau.

[14] See B. Ehrenreich, (1989), *Fear of Falling: The Inner Life of the Middle Class*, (New York: Random House). Ehrenreich argues that self-denial is a persistent theme in the rhetoric, if not the real lives, of the professional/managerial middle class.

[15] Krauthammer, op. cit.

[16] This same critique might be aimed at most of the reactive instruments typically used to "measure" self-esteem since the statements that make up the instruments reflect the values of their developer(s) and not necessarily those of the young people who are subjected to them.

[17] In what may have been anticipation of this criticism, the California Task Force expanded its work to include the connection of self-esteem to personal and social responsibility.

[18] M. Schmoker, (January-February 1990), "Self-Esteem Is Earned, Not Learned," newsletter of the Thomas Jefferson Center, pp. 1 ff.

[19] Beane, op. cit.

[20] Krauthammer, op. cit.

[21] D. Grinde, (1988), "It Is Time to Take Away the Veil," *Northeast Indian Quarterly* 4 and 5: 28-34. Two Iroquois ideas that the framers of the white documents of democracy "forgot" were equality of women and the prohibition of slavery.

[22] J. A. Beane and R. P. Lipka, "Self-Concept and Self-Esteem: A Construct Differentiation," *Child Study Journal* 10: 1-6.

[23] J. Dewey, (1939), *Theory of Valuation*, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press).

[24] Beane and Lipka, op. cit.

[25] Beane, op. cit.

[26] For further discussion of these ideas, see Beane, op. cit.

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Expanding Students' Potential Through Family Literacy

When literacy becomes a family affair, the challenges for all concerned may be formidable—but the rewards are immeasurable.

MARYANN E. NUCKOLLS

Just exactly how long Angie had managed to keep her secret from her children, I wasn't certain. Goodness knows, I had tried to convince her that the whole point was not to keep it a secret.

At long last, the day came when the parents in the new program marched across campus for our first checkout at the school library. Head shyly turned down, Angie tightly clasped her choice in hand: *My Mom Can't Read* by M. Stanek.

"Angie. This is going to be a hard book to read. Why don't we try another?"

Shifting back and forth, her head bobbing in defense, "I looked at the first page like you said, and I can read this book."

"Oh, Angie. That's not what I meant. I know you can read this book." Slowly, I pointed to my chest. "In here, Angie. It may be hard in here. Do you understand what I mean?"

"This book is about me, and I'm going to read it."

As Angie took her book to the checkout desk, I saw Carmen, her 4th grade daughter, coming through the door. My apprehension melted away when Carmen saw her mother and walked toward her with a smile. As she gently tugged at the edge of the book to read the title, their eyes met, and Carmen lovingly wrapped her arms around her mother. All that stood between them was one thin slip of a book.

For Angie, a new world opened when she put her fears away and came to the new class for parents. For Carmen and her younger brother, Gabriel, a new hope came that day in the library when literacy became a family matter.

Helping Parents Help Their Children

Three years ago, I was suddenly struck by the policies I had helped promote as a curriculum coordinator for adult literacy 15 years earlier: "Never insult adults with materials tainted by childhood." If only I had introduced them to the rich world of *Brown Bear, Goldilocks, The Little Engine That Could* . . . the parents would have been given a gift which was never theirs in childhood, a gift they could have shared with their own children by reading the stories over and over again. In retrospect, I can see that the parents in our literacy classes were telling us exactly what they needed. They all had the same story: "I could fake it when they were little, but now I can't help them with their work." Maybe my involvement in family literacy is penance for past sins.

Models of family literacy are as diverse as their participants. Some are home-based; others are located in schools, storefronts, prisons, libraries, and other facilities. All share a common understanding: the best way to get a student involved in literacy is to get the parents involved in their own literacy. Parents, as a child's first teachers, are uniquely qualified to pass on the richness of a literacy legacy through a shared literacy experience.

The simplistic principle is that children model and value what they experience in their homes. All children come from culturally rich environments. But even well-educated parents may not know how to foster their child's emerging competencies. And when parents are low skilled, they provide a limited model indeed for literacy and limited assistance with schoolwork at home.

Parents and Literacy (PAL) in Tucson, Arizona, began with parent classes in school and has evolved into a home visitation model. Our collaborative curriculum emerges from students' needs and parents' skills. By pushing the limits of the parent's proficiency, we can also push the limits of the student's potential for school achievement.

An Invitation for Involvement

Those of us engaged in Intergenerational/Family Literacy carry a responsibility for smoothing the way for others. To provide that support, ASCD sponsors a professional network to increase awareness of the issues and to facilitate communication among existing programs. If you are participating in an Intergenerational/Family Literacy program or are interested in exploring this effort, the network's membership is eager to assist you in making connections with programs and people who can help. For more information, contact Maryann E. Nuckolls, Facilitator of ASCD's Intergenerational/Family Literacy Network, 1336 W. Knox, Tucson, AZ 85705, 602-292-9676.

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Nuckolls, M. E. (1991, September). Expanding Students' Potential Through Family Literacy. *Educational Leadership, 49*(1), pp. 45-46. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Challenges of Literacy Programs

Although family literacy programs exist as aberrations within conventional educational systems, problems are often easily addressed through creative use of traditional administrative tools.

Ownership, involvement, and *understanding* on the part of other staff in the facility are crucial elements in developing a successful program. Fifteen minutes at the fall staff meeting isn't enough to promote these critical elements. Ideally, a semester of staff development prior to initiating a program is a vital asset—even if the target population is not from the school population.

When I finally realized that the promised hour of staff development time at my school was never coming, I began a series of 20-minute buzz sessions for faculty members who really cared and wanted to know more. What began as a group brainstorming issues and answers soon changed. We began celebrating the good things that happened for children when teachers questioned parents and really listened to what they had to share about their lives and their children. First grade teachers held an evening workshop, which was attended by nearly half of the parents. They designated funding in next year's budget to increase the 1st grade workshops and expand to kindergarten through 3rd grade. While the school needs assessment still shows family literacy to be a low priority compared with other programs, half of the teacher comments dealt with its importance and the need for programmatic expansion.

Family Involvement for a Brighter Future

The advantages of involving family in the education of their children are well known; for at-risk kids, the gains may be even greater. Educators looking for answers in this area will find them in *Involving the Families of At-Risk Youth in the Educational Process*, a 38-page report in the "Trends and Issues" series published by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. Author Lynn Balster Liontos explores reasons why at-risk kids in particular need participation from their families, why schools need to take an aggressive approach, what types of programs work, and how to overcome barriers to success.

Available for $6.00 from ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1787 Agate St., Eugene, OR 97403. Make checks payable to ERIC Clearinghouse/University of Oregon. A $2.50 postage/handling charge will be added to billed orders.

With appropriate planning, family literacy can exist symbiotically with other programs in the facilities. PAL parents went into classrooms to read stories in both Spanish and English. The school Book Fair proved to be a wonderful showcase of all they had learned as they helped children select books to buy. Some parents began volunteering, and others began to see job potential they had never imagined. Programs in public libraries can use parents as readers. Collaboration with the business community can open a wide range of opportunities for work and for compensation to participants, such as utilities credits, additional food stamps, or coupons for goods and services. The main constraints are the creativity and willingness of the staffs and programs involved.

Recruitment and *retention* are other challenges. Family literacy programs do not enjoy the captive membership we take for granted in public schools. Getting parents into the program and keeping them there are the key problems facing staffs. Recruitment, an unrelenting daily process, demands continual attention. Pressure to mail out flyers, encourage teacher referrals, and follow up on any lead is ongoing. There is never closure on recruitment. The innate problems of parenthood preclude guarantees that membership will mean regular attendance, which is necessary to get the most from the program.

Evaluation is an additional program concern. Success cannot be measured entirely in terms of numbers. For example, at varying times, Angie was one of five moms, as well as the only mom, in the program. Her son, Gabriel, was a nonreader repeating 3rd grade who bullied and threatened others and generally disrupted learning opportunities for his class. After his mother had been in the literacy program only two months, Gabriel asked to please share his very first book with his class. This was only one indicator of a complete turnabout in his attitude, behavior, quality, and quantity of work. His teacher said that she "could mark the calendar by when Angie began coming to school." The mood and the dynamics of that classroom were changed by one mother with the courage to grow with her children.

Family literacy programs, unfortunately, are not compatible with traditional forms of discrete measurement. But regardless of numbers, we know our programs' effects have reached far beyond the enrolled families.

Would We Do It Again?

Those of us involved in family literacy programs have been challenged in ways which have pushed our own limits. Would we do it again? In a minute, to hear the pride in Joaquin's voice when he said, "I am my mother's teacher." In a minute, to see Maria become an American citizen. In a minute, to hear teachers ask why parents aren't sharing books in *their* classrooms. In a minute, to serve as advocate for a child denied special services. In a minute, for the parent who said, "I am an important part of this school. The children need me, and the teachers need me too." In a minute, for the mother who said, "This program is the best thing that has ever happened to this school and to my family."

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Today's Kids Care About Social Action

There's no lack of interest in social action among children—it's teachers who need more skill and experience to help teach kids to become effective citizens.

BARBARA A. LEWIS

Are today's youth more interested in video games, loud music, or chlorofluorocarbons (CFC's)? Certainly at first glance most don't appear to be overly interested in CFC's or getting involved in any kind of social action. They "show little grasp of the responsibilities that accompany the freedoms of citizenship, and they find politics and government remote from their lives and concerns."

Yet an increasing number of young people are rating social action as a priority in their lives. They're fighting drug abuse and alcoholism, getting involved in recycling efforts, lobbying for clean air, campaigning for representation on local school boards.

My Jackson Elementary 4th-6th students are a case in point. They identified a potentially hazardous waste site just three blocks from the school—a barrel recycling plant with a stockpile of more than 50,000 drums, many of which contained residues of everything from molasses to hazardous chemicals.

These children ignored the advice of state health officials, who told them there was nothing they could do to improve the situation. They were fascinated with this problem—it was not an imaginary situation or a case study in a textbook—it existed in their neighborhood. With astonishing enthusiasm they passed petitions, conducted surveys, wrote resolutions, spoke at meetings throughout the community, and initiated the state's first hazardous waste fund. They began a two-year odyssey that took them out of the classroom into the community, the city, and finally, into the halls of the state legislature.

Through their participation in Community Problem Solving, these children have since tackled the legislature again and pushed through their own law for a $10,000 "Leaf It To Us Fund" for children to plant over a thousand trees. They've also obtained $10,000 through the city government for much needed sidewalk repairs in their neighborhood. They have spoken at the United Nations, have lobbied Congress in Washington, D.C., and have met President George Bush and seen Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher. This is pretty hot stuff for kids from the school with the lowest income per capita in the Salt Lake City School District.

Learning How to Participate

These children are not exceptions. Many young people today care about social action—kids like John Clark Hill, a high school student in Homer, Georgia, who pleaded for saving his town's historic courthouse, which was scheduled for demolition. He gave speeches, created bumper stickers, spoke on the radio, painted signs. Because of his efforts the courthouse was restored instead of destroyed.

One stimulus for social action is coming from the federal government, which recently, for the first time in history, set six goals for education—one of which reads, "All students will be involved in activities that promote and demonstrate good citizenship, community service, and personal responsibility."

Students at Tenakill School in New Jersey are attempting to amend the U.S. Constitution to include the citizen's right to clean air, water, and land. And on Earth Day, 1990, thousands of young people who have grown concerned over the future of the planet participated in the activities. The environmental crisis has torn these children away from their video games.

What distinguishes those young people who don't get involved from those who do? Uninvolved youth often feel powerless to change things. They see themselves as being the receivers rather than the initiators of action, but that doesn't mean they don't care.

Young people who get involved in social action have usually learned how to participate through their associations with caring teachers and adults. The adults function as facilitators who cheer the children on, allowing them to make their own decisions.

In a recent survey of over 1,000 15- to 24-year-olds in Rhode Island and Missouri, 42 percent felt that "no one asks young people to get involved or shows them how." And more interestingly, a whopping 51 percent expressed their support for making community service a requirement for high school graduation.

Facilitating Students' Social Action

The problem is not a lack of interest among youth, but a lack of skills and

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Lewis, B. A. (1991, September). Today's Kids Care About Social Action. *Educational Leadership, 49*(1), pp. 47-49. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

experience among educators. Gaining these skills should become their top priority. But how can teachers teach social involvement when they lack this experience? To begin with, they should know that teaching citizenship involvement does not demand a whole new curriculum. On the contrary, it merely involves extending a subject into real life. To do this, it's helpful to keep four concepts in mind: problem, process, produce, and present.

Problem. Traditionally, teachers present the problems to be studied in classrooms. However, if they want to engage students' interest in citizenship participation, they must allow them to identify problems and to carry out their own plans of action. Otherwise, the teacher's projects will likely be received with a mumbled chorus of "boring" from the students.

A teacher can use any topic students have researched to initiate discussions about real problems. If students happen to be studying animals, the teacher might ask, "What kinds of problems do animals *cause* or *have* in the community?" Since the students are studying the topic, they will have knowledge to easily brainstorm many different kinds of real problems.

For example, when the children at Jackson Elementary discovered the potentially hazardous waste site and began to study it, the first problem they chose to tackle was how to remove the barrels. When this succeeded, they chose to work to "clean up all hazardous waste sites in Utah."

Process. Once again, it has traditionally been teachers who identify the process to accomplish the learning goal. But to increase enthusiasm for citizenship participation, the students should brainstorm what they need to do. For example, after Jackson children had chosen their problem, I helped them sharpen their effective speaking, public relations, and writing skills so that they could create effective products. When they chose to change a state law, I taught them the process of passing a bill.

The process automatically carries the project straight across the curriculum in a holistic approach to teaching. It may require learning language arts skills in telephoning, speaking, and writing letters and proposals. It involves the students in such experiences as researching, working with agency officials, passing petitions, lobbying, and passing laws and ordinances. It might transfer into science and health with investigations into water pollution or causes of diseases. Math skills come into play when students conduct surveys (statistics), fundraising efforts, and calculate possible profits. Music and art talents are used when the students decide to advertise. The possibilities are endless.

Produce. Children can create their own ideas for producing a project. Children at Bellamy Middle School in Chicopee, Massachusetts, read a newspaper article indicating that the city's sludge froze during the winter and couldn't be carted to the dump. The city's proposed solution (product) was to build a $120,000 brick building around the sludge to keep it warm in the winter. The Bellamy students visited the site, surveyed it, and smelled it firsthand. Then they decided to write up a proposal (their product) to build a $400 greenhouse over the sludge. They sent the proposal to city planners. Officials adopted the idea at a savings of $119,500.

What kinds of products should teachers encourage children to produce? Successful phone calling is a simple place to begin. Students often fail at this initial step. For example, Joe may get access to use the school phones (which might require a notarized letter from his parent). He dials the main number for the Department of Transportation seeking information on the placement of a street light near the school. It takes four transfers before he reaches the correct party who can help him. Ms. So-and-So says she will mail some information to Joe and asks for the school address.

Joe panics. Although he can instantly recall all the states in the NFL, he doesn't know the school address. He asks Ms. So-and-So to wait, then runs into the secretary's office to find out the address. Seven people are lined up at the secretary's desk. By the time Joe gets the address and returns to the phone, Ms. So-and-So has hung up. Joe can't remember how to get through to her again and gives up. His first attempt to become involved in citizenship, and he stubs his toe and loses interest.

Contrast this to the successful telephone results of two Jackson kids: One mother reported, "I couldn't believe it. The phone rang last night, and it was the health department asking for my daughter. I wondered why would the health department call Melissa? Did she have head lice? Well, it just turned out they were returning her call for some information." The mother beamed with pride.

The second student's mother said, "That's nothing. I answered the phone the other day, and it was the mayor's office asking for Heather. My mouth just fell right open. I've never seen the mayor in person. So Heather casually picks up the phone and says, 'Oh, hi, Pete.' "

Other citizenship products might include speeches, letters–to–editors, surveys, petitions, proposals, proclamations, interviews, participation on local boards and councils, voter registration, campaigning, incorporating, media coverage and advertising, writing proposals, fundraising and applying for grants, lobbying and initiating ordinances and laws.[6]

Present. In most school rooms the Bellamy waste project would have ended with writing proposals. Students might have debated the possible solutions, or compared and analyzed them. While these experiences are highly valuable and should be included to teach appreciation of the democratic process, their applications will probably appear remote and detached. Young people need to learn to contribute, to take that last step of transfer, to see where their ideas connect to real life.

They need to *present* their products where they can make a difference: at a state agency, community council, business, PTA, legislature. This final step is where students develop the enthusiasm for citizenship responsibility.

No one could expect a child to learn to ride a bike by showing that child a drawing of bicycle parts and by discussing the laws of balance. The child learns by *riding the bike*.

Adding Suspense to the Curriculum

There are many benefits in teaching citizenship participation.

The most remarkable benefit is that, as students reach outward to solve problems to benefit others, the process internalizes, and they learn to better control their personal lives. This is particularly important for "at risk" students, because they learn firsthand that they can cause things to happen. They don't just have to remain the receivers of action. Self-esteem and personal worth skyrocket as a result of this sense of power.

Citizenship participation adds suspense to the curriculum. No one knows for sure what will happen next. Children anxiously await answers to letters, track legislation. When the Jackson children sat in the Utah Legislature watching the votes for their hazardous waste fund flash on the wall, they exhibited as much enthusiasm as if they had been counting points on the scoreboard at a basketball game.

When learning takes place through participation in the community, students gain an audience beyond the classroom and receive additional reinforcement. They learn from others why skills are important. Mentorships develop between students and community experts. Children at Jackson have developed a personal mentorship with the chairman of the city council by serving on the board. Others have developed mentorship relationships with the assistant to the mayor and the state forester.

Parents also become more involved. They drive their children to give speeches, interviews, community councils. Teachers, community people, and parents all cooperate to facilitate these learning experiences for the students. And, of course, the bonus is that students will actually find some solutions to problems that will benefit the school, community, state, and nation.

As students reach outward to solve problems to benefit others, the process internalizes, and they learn to better control their personal lives.

Allowing Children to Think

Not all teaching experiences need to be action related—that would be impractical and cumbersome. However, each student should have firsthand citizenship experiences as often as possible, preferably ones that allow some personal leadership.

Administrators can help by allowing teachers to explore with an open-ended curriculum, one in which the teacher's objective is simply, "to allow children to think and to solve a real problem." Teachers won't necessarily know ahead which direction the project will take, because students will determine the direction. The results of the citizenship experience might become the evaluation. What did the students accomplish? Did they clean up a vacant lot? Distribute flyers against drugs? Speak to community groups? Students might also provide a self-evaluation.

In addition to allowing an atmosphere that fosters creative thinking and exploration, administrators might examine district or state policies. Are there any restrictions that would inhibit citizenship experiences? Do policies prevent students from leaving the school except in a bus? Is there district liability coverage for all parents/teachers/volunteers who might transport children into the community in private cars? Do any antiquated rules imprison children inside the red brick walls?

Finally, educators should seize the opportunity to learn citizenship skills and to teach students to participate, because young people today do care about their future. As this occurs, the '90s will usher in a renaissance of social action, and children will lead the way to creative solutions to many problems.

Youth will not only become more confident in their own powers, they will create a better future for everyone. Apathy will begin to dry up and blow away in a whirlwind of young citizen responsibility. Lawmakers will find themselves with a whole new constituency. The world will become the classroom. ☐

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[1] D. Fowler, (November 1990), "Democracy's Next Generation," *Educational Leadership* 48:11.

[2] A. B. Crabbe, (September 1989), "The Future Problem Solving Program," *Educational Leadership* 47: 27-29.

[3] (February 26, 1990), "The National Goals for Education," Joint Statement by the President and the Governors of the United States of America, White House Press Release.

[4] KAP-Kids Against Pollution. This is a kids' networking group. They are attempting to amend the Constitution and to mandate citizens' rights to clean water, air, land, and to teach environmental education in the schools. Tenakill School, 275 High St., Closter, NJ 07624, 201-768-1332.

[5] Ibid., Fowler, p. 11.

[6] B. A. Lewis, (1991), *The Kid's Guide to Social Action*, (Minneapolis: Free Spirit Pub., Inc.).

Author's note: If you would like a copy of *The Kid's Guide to Social Action* (1991), ask your local bookstore, or call the publisher, Free Spirit Publications, Inc., in Minneapolis: 800-735-7323 (735-READ).

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1

Three Teachers

THE SENIOR English class included fourteen students and the seventy-two-year-old teacher, Sister Michael, a Catholic nun with over fifty years' experience, much of it at this school. The modern, second-story classroom was sunny, sparsely furnished, but there were hundreds of books in shelves along the walls. The students' desks were formed in a neat semicircle, the teacher's desk in front of them, before the chalk board. Sister Michael stood behind her desk or paced slowly back and forth, chalk always in hand. She was a square, kindly woman who, in her habit of black and cream, met the specifications of everyone's stereotypical teacher-nun.

The assignment had been to read Graham Greene's "The Destructors," a short, depressing story about a gang of adolescent toughs, who, for kicks, elect to demolish an old man's house. The central figure is a remote boy called Trevor, a typically English somebody who combines malevolence with a hint of gentle manners, a well-bred hoodlum. Sister Michael started off the class by asking why Greene used the word "destructors," rather than the more expectable "destroyers." The students were at first surprised by this, but in due course began to offer answers. Sister Michael received each with a nod, commented on none, but used several as the springboard for other questions. Her tactic in this class was Socratic: she was trying to help the students learn to ask original questions about a work of art (or any situation, for that matter), to see new sides to otherwise ordinary things. A string of questions tends to tease out ideas that have been locked up or to force into the open relationships that, to the student reader's eyes, had not been there. "Destructor" *says* something different from "destroyer," yes. Its very irregularity puts one on notice. It is as irregular as a well-bred hoodlum or the name "Trevor" for a gang member. Sister Michael kept prodding the students to see and then to examine these incongruities and to ascertain what Greene may have had in mind when he used them.

Although the teacher kept pushing forward questions about the language and plot of the story, she readily digressed when a student answered a question with what (for Sister Michael) was a useful word. One youngster said that a character—Ken Thomas, the elderly owner of the house—was "idealistic"; Sister Michael jumped on it. What did the student mean by it? Why was "idea" as well as "ideal" at its center? What several meanings of the word might there be? The students got two indelible messages from such a digressive foray: that words have precise meanings, all of them important, and that the words a student used in this classroom were important. There was no sloppy language in Sister Michael's domain.

The class went back to the story. They talked of the gang. Sister Michael maneuvered the discussion, still through questions, to a particular phrase in the text, "pure devotion to the gang." Pure? she asked. As with "destructors," the students seemed startled, quiet. Why *pure?* Silence. Sister Michael let it sit there; she looked across the dozen faces around her, without impatience or challenge, merely with anticipation. Someone would have to stick her neck out, and someone ultimately did. Sister Michael did not pounce on this solitary expression, because it was made so tentatively. She received it warmly, asked others if they agreed, and then went on with a new set of questions.

Greene's story ends with a truck driver, having freed Mr. Thomas from the privy behind his house, where the gang had incarcerated him, becoming "convulsed" with laughter as he saw the total rubble before the two of them. The house had been elegantly toppled when a rope, surreptitiously tied to the driver's truck, pulled away a prop as the driver unwittingly started off in his vehicle. To the

appalled old man, the driver says, "I'm sorry. I can't help it, Mr. Thomas. There's nothing personal, but you got to admit it's funny." Sister Michael landed on "funny." When does it mean "laughable"? Could it mean "unexpected"? The students gave examples; she wrote them on the board.

The class now was drawing to a close, and Sister Michael, in order to make one point or another, returned several times to comments made earlier by students. No remark in Sister Michael's class seemed to get lost, to be unremarkable. Needless to say, the students paid attention and were rewarded, even when their responses were prosaic or simply wrong, by Sister Michael's subtle signal that it is all right to err if it is in the cause of ultimately getting something correct.

In the midst of the class, Sister Michael had provoked the students to consider Greene's phrase "a sense of kindness." She had elicited examples of it from the students' own experience, but one could sense that the sister herself personified a style of kindness that was married to rigor and demand. Her judgment, timing, and sense of direction were clear but not obtrusive. This class was a model of the craftsman at work, a craftsman of sensitivity and judgment. It was an experience not reducible to a lesson plan for a substitute to use or a curriculum guide.

A bare three minutes before the class's end, Sister Michael left the text and asked, Should this story be in a textbook for students? Immediately the response, Why not? Sister pressed: Does it give the wrong message to growing people? Is art for entertainment, or preachment, or is it simply a neutral description of reality? The students left the class off balance, pondering.

A classroom like that of Sister Michael's works well when students want to be there and are at least reasonably ready to engage in discussion and attend to the use of their minds. The typical classroom is not designed for rambunctiousness, for noise, for confrontation. Most high school classrooms are designed to hold upward of forty people, a good crowd for such a small working space. To have much of orderly consequence go on, these up-to-forty souls have to agree that they want to work together, as did those in the class discussing "The Destructors."

Unhappily, by the time they reach high school, many adolescents find the word-and-number-filled life of school irrelevant and the classrooms often hostile, places of humiliation. Such students are hard to reach with Graham Greene's abstractions. Most go through the motions, painfully unresponsive to Socratic challenges about a short story. Others simply do not show up at school. A few rebel, destructors inside school and without.

A curriculum guide which said that all twelfth-graders were to read Graham Greene short stories would be totally unsuitable for such youngsters, and a teacher with an ounce of judgment would ignore it. But the pedagogical ends of Sister Michael's class are still apt. Precision—in this case with language, one's own and others', the perception of the unexpected among the familiar, and the questioning about the purposes and function of things, including short stories and much more—is an intellectual attribute appropriate for all kinds of young citizens, those turned off from the rituals of school classrooms as well as those comfortable with them.

A teacher with judgment, while keeping the end in view, varies the means. Charles Gross is an example of such an instructor. Gross, a teacher of electricity in a large vocational-technical high school, looked to be in his forties and was the owner and principal figure in a small electrical-contracting business. The school on this December day had an enrollment list of 1396, virtually all from minority groups and without exception from low-income families. Some 75 percent were in attendance. The school had started the academic year with 1507 students; the drop of over a hundred enrollees was somewhat smaller than in previous years. The attendance rate for those on the list was on the rise: three years earlier it averaged 55 percent per day. The major fall-off in enrollment took place during the tenth-grade year; only 40 percent of those who started in ninth grade made it into the eleventh. The principal had put it simply: "If I could get them into the eleventh year, the battle could be won"—the battle being for the provision of solid basic skills of literacy and numeracy, a salable trade, and a sense, for these desperately poor and usually very neglected and demoralized youngsters, that they can make it.

Gross each year "held" (into eleventh grade) a significant number of his students. When they were ninth-graders, all in the school took an "orientation" class in each of the trades, including electricity. Those of the young people who elected the electrical trade made that choice as tenth-graders, and some started then with Mr. Gross's course, along with the required study of mathematics, English, social studies, and health. The key elements in Gross's approach were his demeanor, which was friendly, no-nonsense, and optimistic, and the opportunity he provided for work experience. The student who successfully completed the tenth grade with Mr. Gross then became part of a team, led by him, that rewired burned-out residential properties being renovated. A church in this slum district, through a special nonprofit corporation created for the purpose, bought up these derelict properties and, with substantial government aid, rehabilitated them. They hired Gross's company to do the electrical work—and Gross's company was, in this instance, Gross and his high school kids. Did the building inspectors mind? I asked the principal. No, Gross is a properly licensed electrician, and he signs off on all the work. Do the unions accept this? A chuckle. Union electricians don't come up to this part of town.

One easily spotted Gross's advanced students. He made them all wear thick-soled boots and plastic helmets, and the latter stayed in place even while the students were in school. Each student had a leather holster of tools, and again, even though this clumsy, heavy bit of regalia was not much used there, it was worn in the school building. Gross did not insist on this at all; it simply was the uniform, and it was worn with pride.

Gross's classroom had too few desks for the thirty ninth-grade orientation students whom I witnessed in session there. The young people, virtually all male, black, or Hispanic, were copying material from the blackboard. Some were perched on the radiators, others on tables at the room's side. The room was as dark and cluttered as Sister Michael's had been sunny and sparse, yet the attention paid by the students to their teacher was comparable.

Electricity is a subject demanding great accuracy: a mistake can mean a fire or a painful injury. Precision in planning, in following a wiring system logically and sequentially, and in understanding its operating realities (if not all the underlying physics), is as essential as is precision in language. Gross pressed both electricity and language: the students had to show and tell him what they were doing and why. As a result, his classes were both "vocational" and "academic": each student had to explain his own reasons for wiring or switching a situation in a particular way. Precision, logic, hypothetical thinking, clarity of expression—all were staples of Gross's classroom. Embodied as they were in a subject of demonstrable practicality for students who thought they had time and energy only for immediately practical things, these intellectual ends of education were powerfully joined to well-chosen means, ones that captured the commitment of these particular students.

Even with existing racial discrimination in the community, minority people can make a fair career in electrical contracting in the large city for which Mr. Gross worked, most usually in nonunion, "mom-and-pop" businesses. The students saw that. They also saw that the work of Mr. Gross's course had applications within a world they knew, their own neighborhood, applications requiring skills that their neighbors respected and sometimes even saw as magical. They also knew that Gross's contract with the church group would provide wages for them during their eleventh- and twelfth-grade years. Thus, the incentives for these students were there and implied a real demand for work at high standard. Staying in Mr. Gross's group meant staying successfully in the other required courses, as well. Mr. Gross made his young people deliver on their own, and he gave those who made it not only the pride of knowing that they were competent but also the insignia of that pride while in school. Sister Michael made sure that each of her students knew that whatever was said in class was important, and Mr. Gross, in his strikingly different milieu, did likewise.

Most classes have more than fourteen students in them, as had Sister Michael's, and most exist in schools and neighborhoods less desperate than those where Mr. Gross's electricians worked. Fred Curtis' ninth-grade mathematics class in the suburb of a big city was set in a pleasant, sunny room opening on a handsome courtyard. There were twenty-four students, fourteen girls and ten boys, and as in many groups of fourteen-year-olds, all shapes and sizes were represented. One boy looked barely four feet tall. The tablet-arm desks were loosely arranged facing the front of the room, but students clustered these as they came in, clots of girls here and knots of boys there.

Curtis had been out in the hallway, and the youngsters chattered on when he came in. He barely looked at them, but wrote on the blackboard, "Write a program which generates all the prime numbers from one to A." The students quieted down, watching. They had previously worked on another simple program for the computer, one that was to ascertain whether any inserted number was or was not prime. Some of the students had drafted it successfully, others had not.

Curtis turned now to the class. "Those of you who got yesterday's problem correct are to start on this one," gesturing toward the board behind him. "Those who didn't get yesterday's should try again. I'll help you." There was acquiescence to these instructions and a bit of chair-moving. Some of those who were to work on the new problem created new clusters, and some of the strugglers did likewise. There was a bit of chatter over this, and most students moved their chairs simply by using their feet as oars, clumsily duck-waddling themselves to or fro. Curtis paid no attention to this bit of comedy and plunged right in with the nearest clutch of youngsters who had failed the previous problem. The room quieted, though whispering continued. As far as I could tell from the back of the room, most of the talk was on the problems.

One girl sat alone, fiddling. She had failed the first problem. She gazed off, then made a face. Curtis moved around the room. When she thought he was watching her, she sighed, audibly and petulantly. He seemed to ignore her and continued talking with others. She fiddled some more and finally said firmly, as he passed in front of her, "Mr. Curtis, I'm waiting for you to help me." Curtis turned briefly: "Don't wait." She pouted. "But I need help." Curtis, now with a smile: "Do some thinking for yourself." He moved on to another student. With a touch of resignation and more audible sighs, bordering on truculence, she got down to work. Curtis, while consulting with others, kept an eye on her, stealing looks at her paper. In due course, he spotted something she'd done correctly. He swept over, pointing, and said for all to hear, "That's great! That's great!" Everyone looked up, noticing. The fiddler flushed. Curtis abruptly moved on. The girl continued to work. There was no more sighing. He soon returned, asking quietly, "Are you any better off than five minutes ago?" The girl nodded, asking questions. Curtis now consulted with her on her solution. It looked as though it might work. Curtis suggested that she go now to the computer room, along with some of the others, to try it out. She left the classroom purposefully.

I observed this class late in the year; Curtis had had a good many weeks to establish its routine. The students worked on their own; the work was to be theirs, much as it had been in Mr. Gross's electricity class. The program that the frustrated, fiddling girl eventually wrote, which she would immediately and privately be able to test on a computer, would be hers. Because of her ownership of the exercise, she would far more likely remember it than if she had been merely walked through a predigested program.

Curtis designed his class to allow students to work at different rates, with two exercises going on concurrently, a new one for the quick and a repeat for the not-so-quick. Apparently he shuffled the class enough so that if there was a stigma to being in the second group on this occasion, it was invisible to a visitor. By his actions, Curtis told the frustrated girl that she could do it, on her own, without his help (or, as it turned out, with a bit of his help). He focused as much or more on her need for self-confidence as he did on her solution to the particular problem in mathematics.

Curtis, Gross, and Sister Michael are all successful teachers. What makes them especially so is their judgment, their ability to find the appropriate recipe for engaging the attention and ultimately the minds and energies of their particular students. Adaptability is at the core of their judgment. Their work suggests no Pill for Good Pedagogical Judgment that can be packaged and distributed by school authorities. Their judgment was an extension of their personalities, their solid confidence in themselves and their subjects, and their ability to move flexibly to achieve their ends. They exemplify the subtlety and complexity of getting things right so that students can learn, and the importance of adult judgment and style throughout.

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3

Motivation

HER NAME was Melissa. She entered the classroom alone, yet still seemed easily a part of the mob of kids arriving for the English class. This was a college-track group of seniors in a large Midwestern city high school, one enrolling students from a wide mix of lower-income, working-, and middle-class families. The teacher, Ellen Romagna, was a feisty young woman who had placed a lectern almost in the middle of the classroom, with the thirty-five individual tablet-arm desks in semicircular rows around her. The room was a happy shambles of books, posters, papers, dictionaries piled on the windowsills, chalk and blackboard erasers on the floor as well as in their intended receptacles.

Looking at no one in particular, Melissa headed toward a desk to the teacher's left, against a wall. She toted a large pile of text- and notebooks in front of her, slung between outstretched arms. She backed into the chair and, swiveling, deposited the books on the tablet arm. She said nothing to her neighbors, but she seemed at ease with them and they with her. She looked about her, neither pleasantly nor unpleasantly, with no particular recognition, enthusiasm, curiosity, or hostility.

The chatter, mostly focused on the teacher, who clearly was a favorite, ceased, and the class—on the poetry of John Donne—started with a brief, lively lecture, spiced with anecdotes. The students listened. A few took notes. They chuckled at the account of Donne's travails, conversions, reconversions, and love affair. Romagna soon switched to a poem by Donne that had been read in class the day before. What did it mean? She pushed questions out into the students.

Melissa watched all this without animation. Her face was not blank, quite; there was ennui, acceptance, a trace of wariness. A question was directed to her. She looked at the teacher with little change in expression. A pause. I don't understand. Romagna repeated the question, kindly, without reproach. Another pause. I don't know. Maybe Donne means . . . Melissa, speaking slowly, quietly, said something, a phrase using words earlier spoken during the teacher's lecture. It was enough to end the exchange, but not enough to provoke a counterquestion or a follow-up by the teacher. The next question went elsewhere. Melissa kept watching, deadpan, still wary.

The class ambled on, the lack of connection between the recitation of Donne's biography and the poems discussed unnoted. The room was genial, to a fault. There was meat there for students to chew on, but only if they wanted to. Ms. Romagna asked good questions, and these were answered by those students who either were interested in them or eager to connect with this cherished instructor.

Melissa's cautious impassivity was unremitting. It wasn't bovine, a blank stare of ignorance, nor was it the apathy of despair. The detachment was indeed very shrewd. Melissa, however unwittingly, was a master at nonengagement. She sat at the side. She didn't move much, thus drawing little attention to herself. She did not offer ideas to the class, but when questioned, parried to buy time and then answered with something just plausible and relevant enough to avoid being chided for inattention or remarked on for perceptiveness or judged for error. She did well enough on tests to be in this college-track group—actually, a class in the middle of the school's ability groupings, with the honors sections above her and the general sections below. She was an educational artful dodger of considerable skill.

I could imagine Melissa moving through her entire school day in the fashion she exhibited in Ms. Romagna's class. Probably most of her classes had fifteen or more students in them, groups large enough to give cover. Her contacts with teachers could be kept to simple sentences, single exchanges. Probing could be parried. Once she got the hang of dodging, school could be quite effortless. She did enough to pass; her attendance was satisfactory; she would surely get a diploma. However, she would not be inspired—she fended off that prospect—and what she gained about the stuff of academic life and about disciplined intellectual inquiry would be largely by chance. My hunch is that if I were to ask her whether she was wasting her time, she'd demur, saying that she is reasonably happy and that she *will* graduate. The diploma is her goal, and she will do the minimum of whatever is expected of her to achieve it.

Every high school teacher knows Melissa; her tribe is a large one. These are the youngsters who blend deliberately with those pastel colors sensed in Janet and Will's high school, with the friendliness and the absence of productive tension that marks all too many classrooms. Good teachers know that Melissa can be constructively provoked, if there is time and if the class is not too large. They know too that she is not stupid and that she has hopes for her future, however well she succeeds at masking them in school. Unless these hopes are understood and turned into responsible incentives that will spur energetic learning, Melissa's drifting will persist.

Melissa dodges engagement with school for at least four reasons. First, she is not *required* to be engaged. Ms. Romagna doesn't press her, doesn't insist, even in a kindly way, that Melissa's train of thought can benefit from exposure. Melissa's hiding is tolerated. Second, there seems little connection between her world and Donne's, at least as presented in this class. As a result, she feels no intrinsic pressure to become engaged. Third, Melissa may be scared. Risking failure in front of her peers and teacher can be painful. If you don't engage, she may well reason, you don't get hurt. And, finally, Melissa knows that her primary goal is the diploma and that the easiest way to get it is to show up at school regularly and to do the exercises set her. Only minimal engagement is required (for example, she has to listen in class most of the time), and taking risks is certainly not required. Given her goal, Melissa's strategy is reasonable.

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Teenage Resilience Attributed To Caring, Supportive Adults And Community Connectedness

Resilient teens almost always have a relationship with an adult who cares about and believes in them, no matter if it is a family member, a teacher, or someone working in a church or social agency, finds Francis A. J. Ianni of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education.

Communities can help foster such resiliency by making sure each youth is close to a number of caring adults. Such relationships give teens social support and a sense of continuity that is often absent from their lives. "The importance of a community-wide context is that its inclusiveness can provide a sense of connectedness," Ianni says.

Other recommendations for helping youth:

- Many believe that since youth share similar problems, their needs are the same. This is far from the truth. Young people's needs largely depend on where and how they live. Consequently, community programs must be responsive to the particular needs and problems of their own communities.

- Adults can help youth grow by modeling caring behavior and attitudes toward each other and toward youth and by setting clear, structured social expectations.

- Different models of youth programs have their own merits. "What is most important is learning to fit what is of benefit to young people into the appropriate model and being willing to adjust and adapt when we do not succeed initially," Ianni says.

Source

Joining Youth Needs and Program Services is available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education, Institute for Urban and Minority Education, Box 40, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, NY 10027 (58 pages, $8 prepaid).

English-Only Classrooms Delay LEP Students from Developing Higher-Order Thinking Skills

Placing limited-English-proficient (LEP) students prematurely into English-only classrooms inhibits the development of higher-order thinking skills and other complex conceptual abilities in students' first language, with the result that students are often left without essential skills in either language.

If given the opportunity to develop these skills in their first language, students can easily transfer their conceptual skills to a second language after they learn the appropriate vocabulary.

Furthermore, students are less likely to fall behind in subjects such as math and science when they are taught in their first language for at least part of the day.

In a publication for the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, researcher Alicia Sosa also outlines numerous other policies and practices that would help create routes to educational success for Mexican-American students.

Sosa points to the importance of creating a school climate and curriculum that incorporates students' cultures and backgrounds.

Other factors that increase Mexican-American students' chances of success in school include: engaging parents in meaningful activities related to their children's education, improving staff development and minority teacher recruitment, ensuring that LEP students are not inappropriately placed in special education or retained in grade, and assigning an administrator to specifically advocate the rights of LEP students, asserts Sosa.

Source

Thorough and Fair: Creating Routes to Success for Mexican-American Students is available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Appalachia Educational Laboratory, PO Box 1348, Charleston, WV 25325 (cite order no. AL-2-1293-AR, 51 pages, $10 prepaid).

Linking Academic Achievement To Racial and Cultural Identity Crucial for African Americans

Research shows that many African-American students believe that academic achievement is the equivalent of "acting white, being raceless." To combat this racial and cultural identity dilemma, says researcher Theresa Perry, more research is needed on ways that African-American families and communities prepare children to succeed in school. Currently, she claims, too much research focuses on their school failure.

In a report for the Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning, Perry contends that in order for African-American children to succeed in school, they have to negotiate membership in three different, sometimes conflicting, communities: mainstream society, Black culture, and as a racial minority. Therefore, parents and schools must help children find ways to feel comfortable in all of these communities so they can maximize their opportunities for success.

Children come to school with varying degrees of "cultural capital" — attitudes, dispositions, tastes, experiences, says Perry. She maintains that these cultural differences are not automatically barriers to school achievement. Cultural differences only become barriers when teachers and schools perceive and treat them as such.

Although unfair racial practices are often unintentional, they need to be recognized so they can be altered. Parents and schools should work together to identify and eliminate curriculum content and staffing practices that create an environment where the child has little choice but to reject achievement. Perry recommends "re-energizing" pre-Civil Rights era school models that focused on leadership, citizenship, and racial uplift and freedom.

Source
Toward a Theory of African American School Achievement is available from the Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning, The Johns Hopkins University, 3505 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218 (cite report no. 16, 53 pages, $8.20 prepaid).

Schools Must Celebrate, Affirm Native Students' Own Culture, Talents, and Learning Styles

Much more can be done to help Native American children succeed in classrooms and schools than is being done at present, charge Agnes Grant and LaVina Gillespie in a book for the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools.

Currently, the authors say, educators expect Native American students to abandon their culture and language and assimilate into that of non-Native schools. Non-Native educators seldom use curriculum and teaching strategies that utilize Native students' cultural strengths. The authors say that failing to do so sends a message that "students' interests and culture are of little value."

"Mainstream society must create schools that are more hospitable for Native Americans, schools in which Native students' lives are celebrated and affirmed," claim the authors.

Grant and Gillespie suggest that teachers become more knowledgeable about Native students and communities and build on students' natural learning styles. For example, since Native children often work cooperatively in their communities and learn by practicing skills, teachers might let students work on meaningful, group projects outside the classroom.

Schools should also solicit parent input into educational systems, as Native parents are very interested in their children's schooling. It's also important to recognize that parents are the primary teachers of their children and to respect what parents have to teach.

Source

Joining the Circle: A Practitioners' Guide to Responsive Education for Native Students is available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools, Appalachia Educational Laboratory, P.O. Box 1348, Charleston, WV 25325 (cite order no. AL-194-AR, 62 pages, $10 prepaid).

When Program Is Replicated, "Success for All" Still Improves Children's Reading Performance

That the program "Success for All" can be replicated and still be effective leaves one less excuse for tolerating low achievement among disadvantaged children, assert researchers Robert Slavin, Nancy Madden, Lawrence Dolan, and Barbara Wasik.

A report from the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students documents that educators using the "Success for All" program — an elementary school reading program that is being piloted nationwide — can successfully teach *all* students.

The researchers report that "Success for All" has resulted in gains in student reading performance, despite the fact that the programs are implemented in schools with very large populations of disadvantaged students. The greatest gains were among students who had previously been in the lowest-achieving quartile of their class. Data collected by outside evaluators confirm the positive results of "Success for All" found by the Center's researchers.

The researchers attribute a large part of the gain to commitment on the part of teachers and administrators.

"Success for All" shows that disadvantaged students can be assured of academic success in every school willing to commit to the program. "The main importance of the 'Success for All' research," say the researchers, "is not in validating a particular model or in demonstrating that disadvantaged students can learn. Rather, its greatest importance is in demonstrating that success for disadvantaged students can be routinely ensured in schools that are not exceptional or extraordinary."

Source
Success for All: Evaluations of National Replications is available from the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students, Johns Hopkins University, 3505 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218 (cite report no. 43, 24 pages, $4.60 prepaid).

Forming Desirable Dispositions Should Be Counted Among Goals Of Early Childhood Education

Cultivating positive dispositions in young children should be a fundamental goal of early childhood education, says a paper from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary Early Childhood Education.

Author Lilian G. Katz defines *disposition* as a frequent, deliberate behavior that is aimed at broad goals.

Dispositions are most likely to be influenced and formed during a child's preschool years. Therefore, when determining the goals of any early childhood curriculum, educators should take into account the importance of these dispositions.

Katz lists seven reasons for including dispositions among the goals of early childhood education. One reason is there is no guarantee that once a child has acquired certain skills and knowledge that he or she will use them. Educators must try to cultivate a *disposition* in that child to use his or her knowledge and skills. For example, having the skills needed for reading does not mean that a child will have the habit of reading or the disposition to be a reader.

Teachers are in a unique position to strengthen certain dispositions by making their own dispositions more visible to children and by responding positively to children when they exhibit desirable dispositions. When teachers tell children that they have to get help or look at the instructions or directions for some new procedure, they model the disposition to persist in solving a problem.

The most important disposition, and the disposition that should be listed among all educational goals, concludes Katz, is the disposition to go on learning. A bibliography and summary of journal articles on dispositions, motivations, and praise is also included in the report.

Source
Dispositions: Definitions and Implications for Early Childhood Practices is available from ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary Early Childhood Education, 805 West Pennsylvania, Urbana, IL 61801-4897 (cite order no. 211, 47 pages, $5 plus $1.50 postage & handling prepaid; make checks payable to The University of Illinois).

Shifting Focus from Prohibition To Prevention and Treatment Curbs Drug Use and Violence

Many Americans believe that it's just about impossible to fight drug abuse and violence. But Ed Janus, Judson Hixson, and Roger Cheswas are not among them.

The three, hosts of the newest edition of an audiomagazine produced by the Midwest Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities, find hope in giving children supportive environments in which they can grow up healthy. They note that children who have their needs met through programs aimed at prevention and intervention turn less often to drugs or violence.

Children aren't the only ones who benefit from intervention programs. They can also help adults who are already involved in criminal activity or addicted to drugs. An interview with Mathea Falco, author of *The Making of a Drug-Free America*, describes the Delancey Street project in San Francisco — a project for hard-core addicts, many of whom were in San Quentin prison. In a community setting much like a college, the project not only provides support, but also trains participants in job and people skills.

Falco notes that if drug addicts remain in treatment for at least a year, there's a 75 percent chance that they'll remain drug-free for at least three years.

Included with the magazine is a special edition audiotape that describes Meharry Medical College's work with youth in Nashville's public housing. Project staff originally counseled pregnant teens. Now, the scope of the program has broadened, pairing youth in housing projects with medical school students from similar backgrounds to give youth hope for the future and a desire for education.

Source

Voices: The Making of a Drug and Violence-Free America, #5 and *I Have a Future in Nashville, Special Edition #2* are available from the Midwest Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities, North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, Publications, 1900 Spring Rd., Suite 300, Oak Brook, IL 60521-1480 (cite order no. A93-4102-VCS, 2-1/2 hours, $14.95 prepaid for tape #5 and special edition tape #2; annual subscription for 6 tapes, $35 prepaid).

Educators and Policymakers Can Play an Instrumental Role In Getting Parents Involved

Research shows that parent involvement has a positive effect on student achievement and attitudes towards school. And educators and policymakers play an instrumental role in fostering this involvement, says a policy brief from the Appalachia Educational Laboratory.

Author Soleil Gregg suggests, for example, that schools assist families in health, safety, and developmental issues by providing information and training on parenting and child development. Furthermore, schools might link families to health and social services within the community to ensure that children receive proper care and treatment and are able to fully participate in the classroom.

For their part, policymakers need to make sure that current laws do not discourage community-school partnerships. They should also encourage schools to make parent involvement a top priority and develop programs to get parents involved.

Gregg provides information on successful practices and lists six areas of shared responsibility for learning, based on the work of Joyce Epstein, co-director of the Center on Families, Communities, Schools, and Children's Learning at Johns Hopkins University. These include: health, safety, and developmental issues; home-school communications; working together at school; supporting study at home; sharing decisions about education with parents; and collaboration with communities.

Reviews of state-level parent involvement initiatives in Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia are also included in the report.

Source

Partnerships: Sharing Responsibility for Children is available from the Appalachia Educational Laboratory, P.O. Box 1348, Charleston, WV 25325 (cite order no. AL-294-AR, 12 pages, single copies available at no cost while supplies last).

Novel Instructional Practices And School Change Programs Available to Urban Educators

Urban educators wanting to improve teaching and learning can pick up many ideas for promising programs and practices from a handbook by the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

The handbook, developed as the result of a conference sponsored by the laboratory and Chicago Public Schools, also describes school change and leadership programs. Among the many successful programs and strategies:

- At Robinson Junior High School in Toledo, Ohio, each student is placed in a cluster of about 100 students that has the same team of teachers for two years. The program features guest speakers from the community, adult mentors, an after school program, and a mini-bank to help students learn about handling bank accounts.

- The Afrocentric Educational Academy of Minneapolis serves middle school students. Although this school's curriculum goals are the same as those of the Minneapolis Public School system, its instructional methods and learning context reflect an African-American perspective.

- New York's City-As-School is an alternative high school program in which students learn from business, civic, cultural, social, and political resources in the community.

- The World of Difference program of B'nai B'rith's Anti-Defamation League has four training programs to encourage understanding and respect among diverse racial, religious, and ethnic groups. It is appropriate for students of all ages.

The handbook also includes other resources for school improvement from the laboratory, the National Diffusion Network, and research and development centers.

Source
Resources for Urban School Improvement is available from the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 1900 Spring Rd., Suite 300, Oak Brook, IL 60521 (cite order no. RUSI-092, 74 pages, $5 prepaid).

Visiting Student Homes Helped Teachers Appreciate Opinions, Knowledge & Skills of Families

Home visits have allowed teachers to discover rich "funds of knowledge" in linguistically and culturally diverse minority homes. These visits enable teachers to make curriculum more responsive to the students' background knowledge and household skills and to build stronger relationships with parents and students alike.

A researcher team led by Norma Gonzalez of the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning worked with teacher-researchers as they visited their students' homes to learn more about the knowledge and skills within families that can be drawn on to help students in school. Teachers found many valuable resources.

Prior to coming to the United States many parents held jobs as engineers, teachers, small business owners, and construction workers. Skills and knowledge they acquired through these jobs have been shared with their children and also with the teacher-researchers. Teachers used some of this information as the basis for lessons in mathematics, science, language arts, or other curricular areas.

Teachers also learned that their students have a lot of responsibility outside of school. Older children care for younger siblings, many help with household chores, and some even produce goods to sell. Knowing about the responsibilities that students have helps teachers tap into students' talents and aptitudes as well as understand why they might be unable to participate in after-school activities.

Because parents felt that teachers valued their opinions, knowledge, and skills, they began to communicate with teachers more easily and more often. The teacher-researchers, in turn, began to view their students as competent members of households with rich cognitive resources and raised their expectations of the students' abilities.

Source
Teacher Research on Funds of Knowledge: Learning from Households is available from the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037 (cite order no. EPR-6, 23 pages, $4 prepaid).

Experimentation with a Variety Of Program Models May Improve Transition from School to Work

Experimenting with — and learning from — a variety of programs that improve students' transition from school to work is necessary because no single program model meets all the needs of every community, claims a publication by the American Youth Policy Forum, the Competitive Policy Council, and Jobs for the Future.

The publication, written by Richard Kazis of Jobs for the Future, discusses ways the federal government can help improve the school-to-work transition. Too many young people just out of high school have inadequate thinking and social skills to perform well in high-paying, high-skill jobs, says Kazis.

Kazis' other recommendations for federal policymakers include:

- Ensuring that experimental programs last long enough for their cost-effectiveness and impact to be evaluated;

- Allocating federal funds to encourage better integration of academic and vocational learning, school and work-based experiences, and secondary and postsecondary learning;

- Expanding efforts between the U.S. Departments of Labor and Education to create voluntary industry-based skill standards;

- Offering incentives to employers and employer consortia to hire and work with young people in structured school-to-work programs; and

- Endorsing new types of teacher education to prepare teachers to support work-based learning.

Also included is an article by Paul E. Barton which describes various types of employer-school initiatives.

Source

Improving the Transition from School to Work in the United States is available from Jobs for the Future, 1815 Massachusetts Ave., Cambridge, MA 02140 (33 pages, $5 prepaid).

Time Spent on Building Empathy Pays Off in Achievement Gains, Ability to Deal with Conflict

Contrary to critics' claims that time spent on affective skills is not a good use of students' time, separate research studies show that the higher students' empathy skills, the higher their academic performance.

So says one of a set of research reviews published by the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Each review covers a different topic.

Author Kathleen Cotton cites researchers whose findings show that students' empathy for others correlates positively with high grade point averages, high scores on higher-order reading comprehension, and strong critical and creative thinking skills.

Students who have an empathetic understanding of others gain insight into different perspectives, examine problems in depth, and become more open-minded, Cotton notes. Furthermore, such students are better able to deal with conflict situations, to work in teams, and to take others' needs into account.

Teaching children to focus on their own feelings, recognize similarities between themselves and others, role-play, and imagine others' perspectives increases students' empathetic understanding, reports Cotton.

Other topics in this set of research reviews include school-based management, nongraded primary education, building positive student self-concept, achieving success in mathematics through computer-assisted instruction, and restructuring in a multiethnic environment.

Source

School Improvement Research Series, VII, 1992-93 is available from the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 101 S.W. Main St., Suite 500, Portland, OR 97204-3297 (cite order no. NL-2-294-AR, 78 pages, $24.95 prepaid).

Casebook Prepares Teachers To Better Deal with Diversity In Their Classrooms & Schools

Full of idealism, a returning teacher chooses to work in an inner city school. Once there, she's shaken by student behavior representing the worst of what she's "heard about the ghetto: crude foul language, rudeness, low achievement, blatant sexuality, continual talk of violence, guns, drugs, the works." Her students "would have been a fearsome group in any color," she says, "but their blackness seemed at first to be a barrier."

This teacher is one of 13 who have authored the dramatic first-person accounts of inner city classroom dilemmas found in a casebook from Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. Edited by Judith H. Shulman and Amalia Mesa-Baines, the casebook focuses on the teacher-student relationship in multilingual, multiracial, multiethnic classrooms.

Today's students represent an unprecedented array of languages, cultures, races and family circumstances. Given such diversity, how can schools effectively educate each child? How can teachers, mostly white and monolingual, avoid inequities born of good intentions or unconscious stereotyping? How can they help students whose life experiences and cultural mores differ markedly from their own?

Read alone or used as the basis for group discussion, these cases have proved a valuable tool for addressing such questions. Written by teachers whose ethnic backgrounds include Japanese-American, Chinese-American, Latino, Filipino, African-American, and Caucasian, the cases help teachers reflect not just on the barriers of language and customs, but also on deeper, more troubling aspects of the classroom exchange: how unrecognized psychological undercurrents of race, culture, and class can obstruct teaching and learning. Following each case and providing a range of perspectives for interpreting it are commentaries written by administrators, scholars, and other teachers.

Source

Diversity in the Classroom: A Casebook for Teachers and Teacher Educators is available from Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 730 Harrison St., San Francisco, CA 94107-1242 (cite order no. FW-394-AR, 117 pages, $16.95 prepaid).

Success for All Is Adapted To Improve Academic Success Of Language-Minority Students

Originally designed to help urban, disadvantaged students learn to read, the *Success for All* program is now being adapted to help language-minority students succeed in school.

Researchers Marcella R. Dianda of the Southwest Regional Laboratory and Nancy A. Madden and Robert E. Slavin of the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students, say the program's success with this special population is because students have the opportunity to acquire language by engaging in meaningful tasks rather than just concentrating on the rules of language formation.

In the program, prekindergartners and kindergartners develop oral language by listening to, retelling, and acting out stories. Classes with many Spanish-speaking students often read and discuss stories in Spanish. In either language, students practice producing language and understanding stories.

At the end of kindergarten, teachers of Spanish-speaking students begin using Lee Conmigo — "Read with Me" — a Spanish version of *Success for All*'s beginning reading curriculum.

Students learn letter sounds in English and Spanish and use their new understanding of sound to read stories. Teachers also use puppets, objects, music, and gestures to guide student responses and to help language-minority children understand what's being communicated, maintain the researchers.

Students graduate into *Beyond the Basics*, a more advanced component of the program that uses cooperative learning activities to improve students' reading and writing skills.

Cooperative activities in themselves are effective with language-minority students because students can practice English within the context of a meaningful task, such as conveying information to their peers. The researchers claim that cooperative learning also increases students' reading comprehension and language skills and improves race relations between students.

Source

Lee Conmigo: "Success for All" in Schools Serving Language Minority Students is available from the Southwest Regional Laboratory, 4665 Lampson Ave., Los Alamitos, CA 90720 (cite order no. SR-394-AR, 16 pages, $4.95 prepaid).

Family Centers Provide Places In Schools Where Parents Meet, Plan and Implement Programs

Parent or family centers — places in elementary and middle schools where families can meet with educators, plan and implement programs, make decisions about school governance, and provide services for other parents and schoolchildren — are becoming increasingly popular in schools around the country.

These centers, in addition to bringing structural change to schools, represent a symbolic change. No longer are parents invited guests in a school — they're members of a team. In a survey of parent centers conducted by the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning, researcher Vivian R. Johnson recounts the far-reaching activities and services that parent centers host:

- All centers surveyed reported that they conduct workshops and classes for other parents; give parents information; and offer social services and child care. Some centers have lending libraries for parents; some deliver literacy training; and others sell low-cost groceries.

- The centers all help improve home-school communication. Many coordinate home visits, receptions for open-house and school events, and translation services for families who don't speak English. A few centers maintain homework hotlines and host breakfasts for parents, students, and teachers. Importantly, parent centers are open at times convenient for parents, notes Johnson.

- Seventy-five percent of the parent/family centers hold school decision-making meetings.

- Many parent centers sponsor special musical, sporting, fund-raising, or other events. Many others reported that they coordinate parent volunteers for the playground, classroom, or field trips.

Source

Parent/Family Centers: Dimensions of Functioning in 28 Schools in 14 States is available from the Center on Families, Communities, Schools and Children's Learning, The Johns Hopkins University, 3505 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218 (cite report no. 20, 13 pages, $5.50 prepaid).

A Fundamental Reengineering Is Needed to Prepare Students For College and the Workplace

For educators tired of tinkering with reform, a new publication from the SouthEastern Regional Vision for Education provides a blueprint for "reengineering" high schools.

Author Stephanie Kadel suggests that high schools follow models of reengineering that are similar to ones used by businesses. Such reengineering involves "the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of … processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical measures of performance." Kadel looks at three areas of reengineering: school-wide change, graduation alternatives, and integrating academic and vocational education.

In the area of school-wide change, Kadel discusses block scheduling — creating longer classes that meet less often — its advantages and disadvantages, model programs, and "dynamite ideas" for its implementation. One advantage of block scheduling is that teachers need only to prepare for one or two classes per day and see only a total of 50 to 75 students each day.

One program that integrates academic and vocational education is the Rural Entrepreneurship through Action Learning (REAL) program based in Athens, Georgia. Students in the program research community needs and then design and operate their own community businesses — funded in part by the school — to meet these needs. Students learn interpersonal, accounting, and management skills in the classroom and take field trips to observe businesses and interview business owners.

Source

Hot Topics: Usable Research: Reengineering High Schools for Student Success is available from the SouthEastern Regional Vision for Education, Rte. 1, Box 8500, 3841 Reid St., Palatka, FL 32177 (cite order no. SV-494-AR, 100 pages, $7 prepaid; make checks payable to NEFEC/SERVE; discounts available for orders over 50).

Black and Asian Youth Use Less Alcohol, Tobacco, and Drugs Than Their White Classmates

Overall, black and Asian youth use less tobacco, alcohol, and other drugs than white youth, finds John A. Pollard of the Western Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities.

Pollard compiled the results of 53 national, state, and local surveys to identify trends in racial and ethnic groups' use of tobacco, alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, crack, hallucinogens, inhalants, amphetamines, opiates, and barbiturates. Among Pollard's findings:

- Black and Asian youth reported using alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs at some point during the last year much less often than white youth — as much as 20 to 25 percent less, according to some studies.

- That black youth use fewer substances seems to have a moderating effect on their white peers. If a given group of teens is mostly black, white youth in that group tend to use substances less often than they normally would.

- Hispanic and American Indian youth reported using alcohol, tobacco, and other drugs about as often as white youth.

- When asked about their substance use over the past month, white and minority youth reported using substances at about the same rate. This is because few youth — white or minority — tend to use alcohol, tobacco, or other drugs on a daily or near-daily basis.

- Although all youth surveyed tended to use more substances as they got older, substance use grew at a slower rate for minority youth than for white youth. In other words, as youth grow older, "there is an increasing disparity between minority group and white" substance use, notes Pollard.

Source

An Integration of Survey Findings Regarding Substance Use for Minority Youth: 1985-1991 is available from the Western Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 101 SW Main St., Suite 500, Portland, OR 97204 (cite order no. NL-4-494-AR, 104 pages, $17.15 prepaid).

Integrating Student Service Into Academic Curriculum Seen As a Win-Win Situation for All

High school vocational students do carpentry work and other home repairs for elderly people who can't do the work themselves as part of a service-learning project called Help the Elderly Live Proudly (H.E.L.P.). Besides the obvious benefits for the elderly, H.E.L.P. also benefits students. They are more aware of the problems of the elderly and have a chance to improve their vocational skills in a real-life, meaningful situation.

H.E.L.P. is just one of the over 30 successful service-learning programs featured in a publication by James Watkins and Dianne Wilkes of the SouthEastern Regional Vision for Education.

Service learning integrates service into students' academic curriculum. "Students who are able to learn about the world around them and work to improve it as part of their education reap many benefits," contend the authors. They report that these students do better in school, have higher attendance, behave better, become more aware of civic responsibilities, have higher self-confidence, make more meaningful connections between what they learn at school and "real life," and learn skills they can use after leaving school.

In another service-learning program, fourth and fifth-grade students operate a before-school care program for kindergarten and first-grade students and tutor these same students during the day. They also serve as school tour guides, clean school grounds, and organize various activities, such as preparing sandwiches with cheerful notes for a nearby homeless shelter. Students' grades, attendance, and behavior have improved. School staff attribute improved behavior to older students' efforts to be good role models for the younger students they tutor.

Source

Sharing Success: Promising Service-Learning Programs is available from the SouthEastern Regional Vision for Education, c/o NEFEC/SERVE, Rt. 1, Box 8500, 3841 Reid St., Palatka, FL 32177 (cite order no. SV-2-594-AR, 72 pages, single copies are free).

Sharing Books with Children Allows Parents to Cultivate Children's Interest in Reading

Parents interested in learning how to motivate their children to read can now turn to a "how-to" book by Carl B. Smith of the Family Literacy Center.

Smith suggests that parents motivate their children by reading with them and then discussing what they've read. Such book sharing can also enhance parent-child relationships.

Discussing books with parents is fun for children because it differs from typical parent-child interactions in which parents hold the knowledge. Conversations about books allow parent and child to "take a safe step outside of [their] roles and meet on neutral ground, sharing opinions and values with one another," asserts Smith.

Reading books on subjects that children are interested in, but parents know little about, can be tremendously rewarding. "Children will probably appreciate the chance to be a teacher for a change, especially if parents show genuine interest in and respect for their knowledge," finds Smith.

Older children like reading books about kids their age, particularly kids who are experiencing similar problems and feelings as they are. Such stories may lead children to discuss with parents things they may otherwise keep to themselves.

Parents might read to younger children at bedtime, or share picture books with them, recommends Smith. This makes it more likely that children will enjoy reading as they grow older.

Other book sharing strategies addressed are how to: find time to share books with children; select appropriate books; ask the kinds of questions that will encourage conversation; and use book sharing to boost children's self-esteem. Also included are lists of tried-and-true stories for children of varying ages and reading abilities.

Source

Connect: How to Get Your Kids to Talk to You is available from the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, English, and Communication, Indiana University, Smith Research Center, 2805 E. 10th St., Suite 150, Bloomington, IN 47408-2698 (236 pages, $14.95 plus 10% shipping & handling, with a minimum of $3, prepaid).

Building Children's Resiliency Requires Creating Supports That Protect Them from Risks

Prevention programs that foster resiliency in children and youth require policymakers, educators, community members, parents, and other adults to change how they view children.

Adults who strive to build children's resiliency don't try to "fix" children, but create an environment that protects children from health, social, and community risks. Moreover, they view children as resources, not problems.

A publication by the Western Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities compiles articles on fostering resiliency written by researcher Bonnie Benard over the last few years.

Resilient children are those who thrive despite growing up in neighborhoods and schools plagued by poverty, drug abuse, teen pregnancy, gangs, and delinquency. The focus is on "environmental factors that facilitate the [healthy] development of youth," says Benard.

Among these crucial environmental factors are caring and supportive relationships with at least one adult, be it a parent, teacher, clergy member, or neighbor. Adults also need to continually communicate clear and high expectations to children, as well as provide opportunities for children to contribute to their social environment.

Benard urges that resiliency not be seen as a quick-fix strategy or an add-on to existing prevention programs. "Long-lasting, systemic change — change that is infused throughout the daily life of the school and community and not just a tacked-on program — begins with our beliefs, feelings, and attitudes," she asserts.

In other articles, Benard illustrates how adults can communicate a message of resiliency through interagency collaborations, peer and mentoring programs, multiculturalism, and other school programs.

Source

Turning the Corner from Risk to Resiliency is available from the Western Regional Center for Drug-Free Schools and Communities, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 101 SW Main St., Suite 500, Portland, OR 97204 (cite order no. NL-5-594-AR, 42 pages, $8 prepaid).

Cooperative Learning Program Encourages Bilingual Students To Construct New Knowledge

Helping bilingual students to learn from each other is one of the key features of a cooperative program of reading and writing being examined by the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students.

Many researchers have shown that learning is an active process. The center's researchers bear this out once again. "Under supportive social circumstances, children are very active in probing and questioning their own knowledge" to construct new knowledge, say researchers Richard P. Durán and Margaret Szymanski.

The researchers found that the program, Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), encourages such constructivism. Adapted for bilingual classrooms, CIRC has students work together on learning vocabulary words, predicting events in a story, reading the story, discussing it, and writing about it. Students practice the language, correct each other's language form, and share perceptions of the story.

The researchers closely examined the interactions between students in a third-grade bilingual classroom while they were engaged in a CIRC activity. Students were reading stories that they had written and then discussing them with their peers. They corrected each other's mispronounced words and syntax errors. In addition, one student pointed out that another student had made a mistake in gender when she wrote that she wanted to be a policeman, instead of a policegirl.

In these cooperative activities, students "rely on their shared expertise to attain instructional goals ... that are related to their own expertise and concerns," conclude the researchers.

Source

Construction of Learning and Interaction of Language Minority Children in Cooperative Learning is available from the Center for Research on Effective Schooling for Disadvantaged Students, The Johns Hopkins University, 3505 N. Charles St., Baltimore, MD 21218 (cite report no. 45, 14 pages, $4.25 prepaid).

Alternative Assessments Allow Teachers to Connect Evaluation To Students' Diverse Cultures

Alternative assessments hold promise to promote equity among all students when consideration is given up front to the influences of language and culture on classroom performance.

It is crucial for teachers from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds to be involved in drafting such alternative assessments — assessments that require students to perform tasks or to create meaningful products.

"Test questions and student responses are understood only in terms of the test-taker's background, the testing context, and the cultural lens of the test developer and scorer," maintains researcher Elise Trumbull Estrin in a knowledge brief published by the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

Alternative assessments can promote equity by linking classroom instruction to students' personal experiences and by offering flexibility in the language and form in which students demonstrate their knowledge. Astute teachers design assessments that allow students to demonstrate their knowledge by doing one of a variety of tasks or by doing the same task in a modified way.

These types of assessments also tend to promote higher-order thinking skills. Culturally diverse students benefit as much as other students from an emphasis on higher-order skills, but they are often only offered instruction in basic skills.

In order for alternative assessments to be used in these ways, teachers must view cultural and linguistic differences among students positively instead of as problems to overcome, explains Estrin.

"We must be vigilant at every step of the way for potential bias, looking at a student's behavior and background as well as test performance to justify interpretations of scores and how they are used," urges Estrin.

Source
Alternative Assessment: Issues in Language, Culture, and Equity is available from the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 730 Harrison St., San Francisco, CA 94107 (cite order no. FW-694-AR, 8 pages, $3 prepaid).

Learner-Centered Principles Show Potential to Strengthen Math and Science Education

Attention to learner-centered principles has the potential to revolutionize mathematics and science education, says Barbara McCombs from the Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory.

Learner-centered principles are meant to guide teaching and learning. They are based on psychological research and constructed around the learner's individual characteristics and needs. The first principle, for example, posits that learning is naturally an active and voluntary process influenced by the learner's unique experiences and perceptions. Therefore, effective instruction involves students directly in their own learning and engages their natural curiosity by drawing on their unique past experiences.

In her paper, part of a collection entitled *The Challenge in Mathematics and Science Education: Psychology's Response*, McCombs lists twelve learner-centered principles and their implications for mathematics and science learning and instruction.

These implications suggest that in order to maximize student learning, motivation, and achievement in mathematics and science teachers are to:

- provide individual students and groups of students opportunities to develop higher-level thinking, problem solving, goal setting, and reflective self-awareness;

- diagnose students and select instructional materials and methods based on each student's unique knowledge representation;

- integrate affective strategies for stimulating interest and curiosity and for enhancing perceptions of competence and motivation to learn with cognitive strategies; and

- provide developmentally appropriate opportunities for student choice and self-regulation.

Source

The Challenge in Mathematics and Science Education: Psychology's Response is available from the American Psychological Association, Order Department, 750 1st St., NE, Washington, DC 20002-4242 (379 pages, $40 prepaid; $34 for APA members; call 1-800-373-2721 for additional information).

Rethinking Regular Education, Not Compensatory Programs, Is Key to Serving All Students

Attention needs to be focused on regular education classrooms rather than traditional compensatory programs, if *all* children are to experience success in school. Specifically, states Richard L. Allington, "providing all children access to a single, rich literacy curriculum should be the base for rethinking schooling for the children of poverty, the children who most often find learning to read difficult."

Allington argues that teachers and students need more uninterrupted blocks of time during the school day to engage in quality learning in language arts. He states that "[s]mall blocks of time foster small tasks, larger blocks foster larger tasks."

Moving some of the compensatory education teachers to regular education classes would drastically reduce the teacher/student ratio, thereby better serving all students. Those students who still need extra instruction might receive help during extended day programs, during the weekends, or throughout the summer, recommends Allington in a publication from the National Research Center on Literature Teaching and Learning.

He also contends that much more attention should be directed towards the kinds of tasks students do in the classroom. Children who find learning to read difficult benefit tremendously from "frequent, explicit, personalized teaching."

Over the years, compensatory or categorical programs have evolved into separate programs, often unconnected to the curriculum of the regular classroom. Children who participate in these programs do not necessarily receive more or better reading/language arts instruction. In fact, sometimes it is worse because instruction is focused on low-level skills or children miss part of the reading instruction in the regular classroom.

Source

Reducing the Risk: Integrated Language Arts in Restructured Elementary Schools is available from the National Research Center on Literature Teaching and Learning, University at Albany, SUNY, School of Education, 1400 Washington Ave., Albany, NY 12222 (cite report no. 1.9, 16 pages, $3 prepaid).

Special Ed Students Improve Language Skills by Partaking In Instructional Conversations

Special education students, often handicapped by a history of failure, improve their language development and reading comprehension through instructional conversations — learning dialogues between a group of students and their teacher, reports a publication by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Teachers guide instructional conversations around a theme that links students' background knowledge to the text. Teachers then facilitate classroom conversations in which students build upon, challenge, or otherwise respond to each other's comments.

Researchers Jana Echevarria and Renee McDonough frequently observed and interviewed one special education teacher over the course of a year and a half who used instructional conversations. They found that regardless of language ability, many students actively participate in conversation. Their participation is notable since special education students often "resist risk-taking in order to avoid failure," assert the researchers.

Student motivation and self-esteem also may improve as a result of instructional conversations. "Students are encouraged to express original ideas and personal experiences, which validates them as individuals with something important to contribute," maintain the researchers. "They seem to develop a sense of themselves as thinkers and learners whose opinions and perspectives matter."

The researchers note that special education teachers will likely have to adapt instructional conversations to their students' needs. For example, teachers will need to make sure the theme they select is neither too abstract for the students to understand, nor too obvious, lest they become bored. Teachers might also have to use visual cues to reinforce the conversation.

Source

Instructional Conversations in Special Education Settings: Issues and Accommodations is available from the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037 (cite order no. EPR-7, 24 pages, $4 prepaid).

Comprehensive Materials Inform Policymakers and Practitioners About Early Childhood Issues

Most anything that policymakers, educators, and community members want to know about early childhood development and education can be found in a comprehensive packet of information available from the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory.

Compiled by the laboratory and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, the packet includes brochures, policy reports, position statements, article reprints, bibliographies, lists of professional organizations, and other materials that cover a wide range of early childhood education issues. For example, materials in the packet discuss:

- Integrating community services for young children and their families. According to a policy brief by the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, effective initiatives offer comprehensive services, focus on preventing problems, adapt to families' changing needs, and encourage families to help set their own goals and to choose the services they need to meet the goals.

- What young children should be learning. ERIC Clearinghouse Director Lilian G. Katz maintains that early childhood programs should cultivate children's: (1) knowledge of facts, concepts, and ideas; (2) physical, social, verbal, counting, and drawing skills; (3) feelings of competence, belonging, and security; and (4) friendly, curious, and creative dispositions.

- Appropriate education for the primary grades. This includes using projects and learning centers that integrate curricula, allowing children to work together in small groups, and implementing learning materials and activities that are concrete and relevant to children.

- Myths about developmentally appropriate programs. This article dispels the notion that there is only one right way to instruct young children. The right type of instruction for any one child will depend on his or her level of comprehension, prior experiences, and current knowledge and skills.

Source
Research into Practice: Early Childhood Education is available from the North Central Regional Educational Laboratory, 1900 Spring Rd., Suite 300, Oak Brook, IL 60521-1480 (cite order no. DP-EC-094, $10 prepaid).

Unique Challenges & Resources In Low-Income Ethnic Families Affect Parents' Involvement

The extent to which educators recognize and utilize the unique challenges and resources in low-income Mexican-American and European-American families can make or break parent involvement initiatives, says a report from the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Researcher Margarita Azmitia and colleagues interviewed 36 parents from each of these two groups. They found that Mexican-American parents whose own schooling was limited relied on older siblings to assist younger children with homework. Rather than trying to teach these parents academic skills, the researchers suggest that teachers build on the skills these parents do have, such as organizing others to help their children with homework and monitoring their children's schooling.

Many of the European-American parents interviewed were single parents struggling to survive on a reduced income. Unlike the Mexican-American families, researchers found that these single-parent families did not utilize their home resources and felt the challenge of supervising and assisting their children in their education was too great a task.

In this case, the researchers suggest helping these parents form support networks and showing them how to use teachers' assistance more effectively.

They also found that, although Mexican-American parents had high aspirations for their children's future, many were unaware of what is required to attain such goals. Few of these parents knew, for example, that a graduate degree is a prerequisite to becoming a doctor or lawyer. Schools need to make parents aware of the educational and financial requirements of achieving certain goals and empower them to direct their child's education toward these goals, say the researchers.

Source

Links Between Home and School Among Low-Income Mexican-American and European-American Families is available from the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, Center for Applied Linguistics, 1118 22nd St., NW, Washington, DC 20037 (cite order no. EPR-9, 28 pages, $4 prepaid).

Module 1 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Identify characteristics of marginal learners.
2. Describe a variety of conditions leading to marginal learning performance.
3. Analyze indicators of growing risk for children and youth.
4. Develop a shared definition of marginality.

Case Studies: Conclusions

1. What sources of marginal learning behaviors were illustrated in these cases?

2. What additional sources of marginal learning behaviors might be illustrated through specific examples you know about?

3. What trends or patterns, if any, were evidenced in the suggestions for intervention developed by the groups?

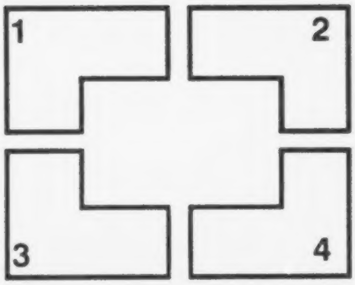
4. What additional questions about marginal learners were raised by this activity?

Sources of Marginal Learner Behaviors

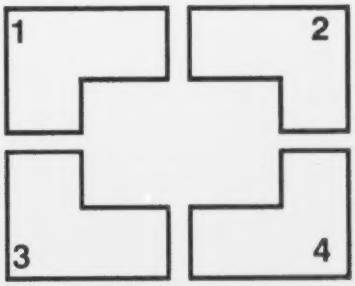
1. **Conflict of expectations between home and school.**
2. **Pressures from adolescent culture.**
3. **Conflict with curriculum, instruction, organization, policies, and procedures of school.**
4. **Individual capacities and characteristics.**

Sinclair, R. L. & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal,* p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

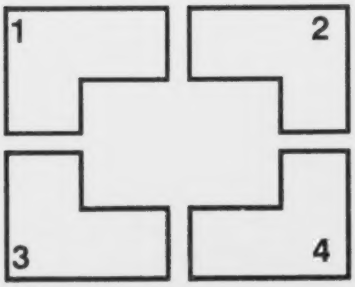
Jigsaw Exercise



(1) "Home" Group



(2) "Expert" Group



(3) "Home" Group

1–4 = number of topics for study

Views on Marginality

On the fringes of school there is a shadow population of students whose motivation and achievement are stymied. These are the young people who are not being well served by the American public schools. These are the students who have been forced into the margins. The strained relationship that they develop with the educational environment leads others to view them as deviant individuals, either temporarily on the fringes or perhaps permanently out of the mainstream. The environment for learning ceases to be accessible to these students who are having difficulties. As marginal learners, they fail to achieve full and satisfying involvement in school.

Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, p. 41. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Views on Marginality

The term marginal student does not refer to any set of characteristics based on intelligence or social class. Instead, the category of marginal student includes a broad range of adolescents, some bright and others less so, who find themselves unsuccessful, unhappy, and even unwelcome in school.

Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student (Fastback No. 197)*, p. 7. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc.

Views on Marginality

To be marginal is to experience a strained, difficult relationship with educational conditions that have been organized to promote learning. Because the curriculum, instruction, and school organization do not contribute readily to the learning of marginal students, these young people can become disconnected from conditions that were intended to foster academic skills and competencies.

Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching Marginal Students: A Primary Concern for School Renewal*, p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events

Levels of Seriousness	*Events*	*Examples*
1. **Testing** [Circumventing legitimate means]	First deviations Light penalties Improvement assumed Repeated deviations	Stretch truth Search for exceptions Manipulate parents "Brown nose" Cheat on tests Copy homework "Forget" notes from home Purchase term papers Plagiarize papers "Borrow" others' belongings Bite Spit Taunt other children (non-publicly)
2. **Coasting** [Going through the motions with little expectation of success]	Question school goals as being realistic, attainable, meaningful Likelihood of improvement questioned Stalemate accepted Often overlooked by school personnel	Take tests, but do not finish Attend class, but do not participate Seek help only when forced Seldom initiate questions Use school as a cover to pursue other interests Join groups reluctantly Play with others, but do not interact Turn in incomplete assignments or none Do not pay attention Do poor class work

Becoming Marginal: Levels of Seriousness and Events

Levels of Seriousness	*Events*	*Examples*
3. **Retreating** [Reluctance to maintain a facade of acceptable behavior]	Reject school goals and available means for learning Try on the marginal role, cling to peers for support Stigmatized and punished by peers and teachers Sometimes overlooked if not a discipline problem	Truant Cut classes Chronically tardy Smoke in bathrooms Hang out under stairwells, etc. Frequently suspended from school Ignore advice, directives, and offers of assistance Daydream, do not pay attention Act shy and fearful Refuse to participate in group work Refuse to talk
4. **Rebelling** [Sustained and planned efforts to strike back]	Create opposing goals and means Engage in sustained and planned efforts to strike back Feel pressured to repeat or extend the antisocial behavior	Vandalize Fight, assault others, use verbal abuse Have outbursts, tantrums Use or sell drugs and alcohol on school property Defy authority Commit arson Carry a weapon to school Do not cooperate Refuse to put toys/belongings away Destroy the work/possessions of others

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Adapted from Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal*, p. 13. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Lally, J. R. (Ed.). (1990). *Infant/toddler caregiving: A guide to social-emotional growth and socialization.* Sacramento, CA: California Department of Education.

Focus of Concern

- Warning Signs
- Sources of Conflict
- Levels of Seriousness

Parents/Guardians

Teachers/Aides

Administrators

Interventions

Programs

Social Services

School

District

State

Module 2 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Assess and describe attitudes and assumptions that affect marginal learners.
2. Explore ways in which students can be motivated in school through an evaluation of psychological needs.
3. Examine teacher characteristics and behaviors that motivate marginal learners and maximize achievement.
4. Develop a set of in–class and in–school strategies that can alleviate conditions leading to marginal learning.

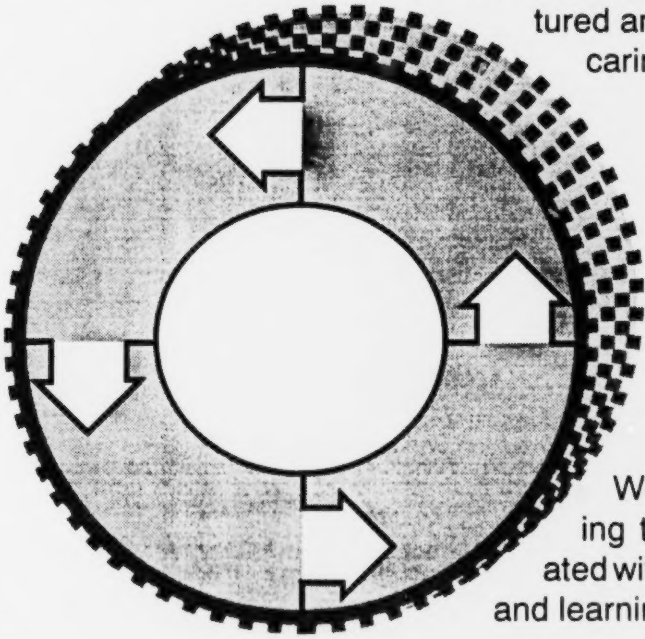
Marginal Learners: Consensus Response of Researchers and Scholars

What Can Be Done?

1. Ensure equal access to a quality education: School conditions
2. Develop home–school partnerships
3. Secure total staff collaboration
4. Address unproductive patterns of behavior
5. Change low–quality interactions
6. Vary educational conditions
7. Be aware that marginality = risk to all
8. Seek student input
9. Examine and improve teacher/ student interactions
10. Provide adequate time for lasting improvement

From Sinclair, R. L., & Ghory, W. J. (1987). *Reaching marginal students: A primary concern for school renewal*, pp. 162–165. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan Publishing Corporation.

Glasser's Control Theory Needs



LOVE AND BELONGING

We are all born with the need to be nurtured and to nurture others through caring, cooperating, and sharing.

POWER

We all need to gain a sense of worth and recognition—to believe that we are capable human beings and know that others share this belief.

FUN

We all need the joy of encountering the unexpected that is associated with laughter, play, entertainment, and learning.

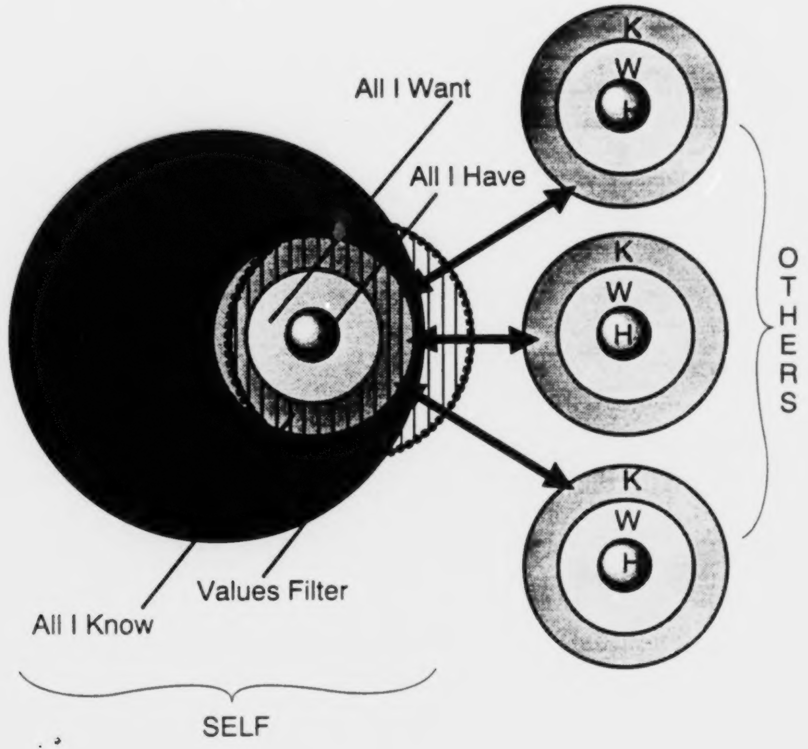
FREEDOM

We all need to have choices—options of behaviors available to us.

SURVIVAL

We all need assurance that we will have the resources we need to live and reproduce.

Motivation and the Three Worlds of Perception


All I Want
All I Have
All I Know
Values Filter
SELF
K
W
H
K
W
H
K
W
H
OTHERS

Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement

1. Opportunities to respond in class
2. Individual acknowledgment
3. Wait-time
4. Physical closeness/proximity
5. Touching
6. Praise/reproof
7. Listening
8. Probing
9. Higher level questioning
10. Analytical feedback/reasons for praise

From Grayson, D. (1985). *Gender Expectations and Student Achievement Training Manual.* Los Angeles, CA: Los Angeles County Board of Education.

Incentives

"I learn what I want to learn. I want to learn what I value or am convinced by people whom I trust that I will eventually value. I want to learn what is fun, what is interesting, what respect elders tell me is important, what gives me a kick, what I am good at."

From Sizer, T. (1984). *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*, p. 164. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Module 3 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Analyze specific techniques for motivating marginal learners and for adapting classroom practices to accommodate them.

2. Develop methods for getting help from various sources to reach marginal students.

3. Identify needs and plan interventions appropriate for marginal learners in participants' schools/districts.

What Makes Them Marginal?

Recognizable handicaps

Mental retardation

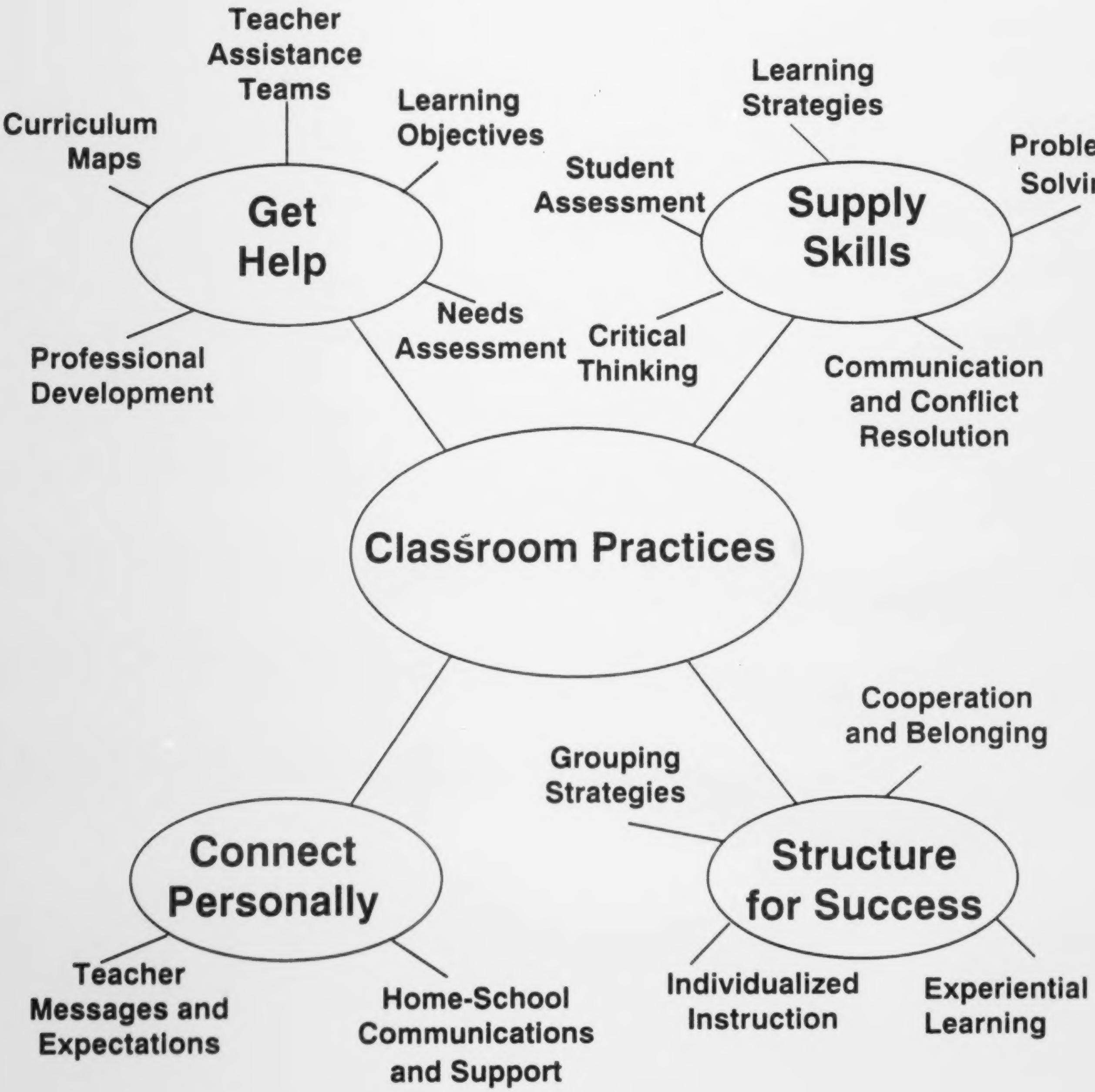
Physiological disorders

Slow academic gain

Emotional problems

Poor or distressed cultural and social backgrounds

Adapting Classroom Practices for Marginal Learners



Classroom Practices

Get Help
Curriculum Maps
Teacher Assistance Teams
Learning Objectives
Needs Assessment
Professional Development

Supply Skills
Student Assessment
Learning Strategies
Problem-Solving
Communication and Conflict Resolution
Critical Thinking

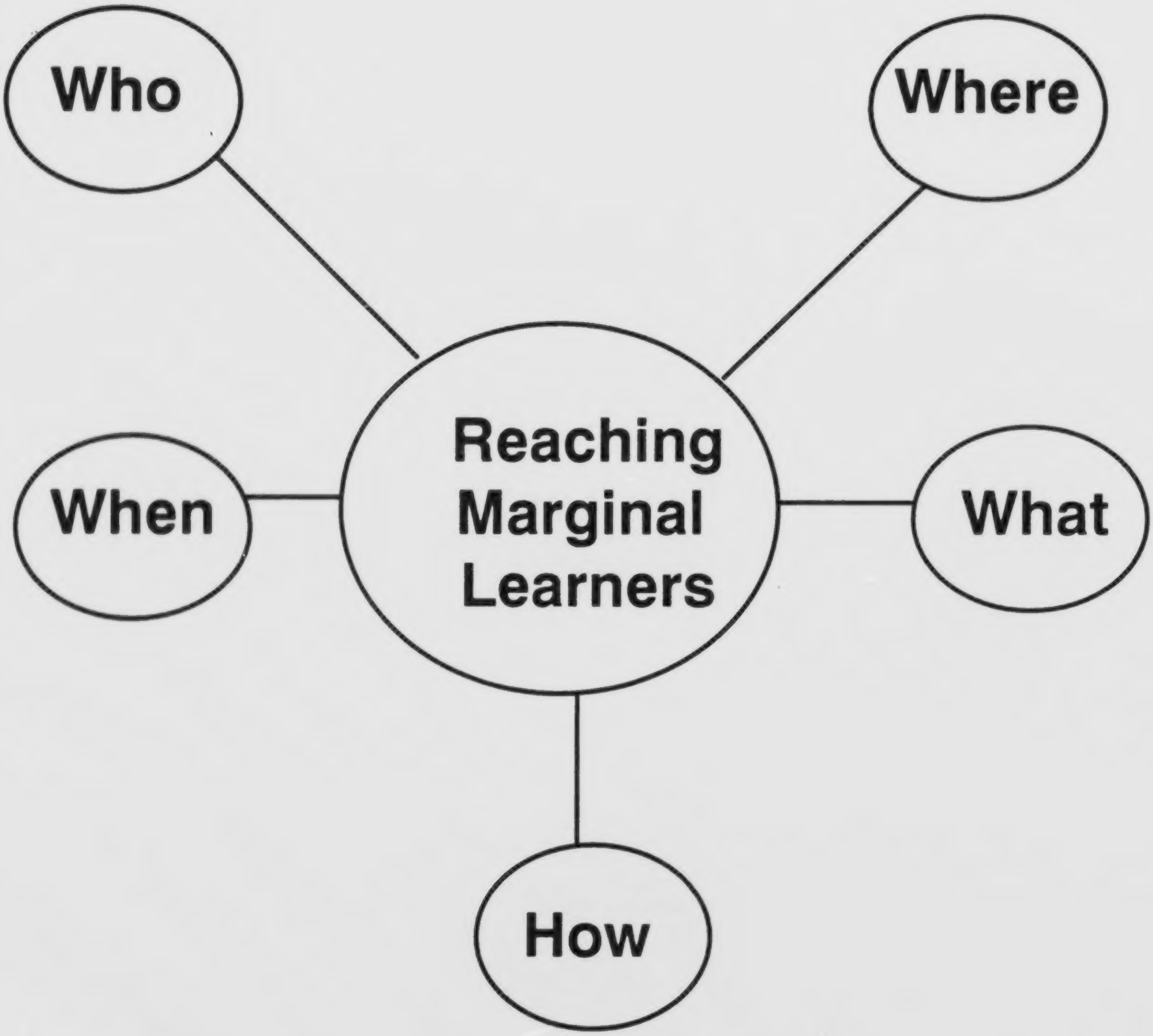
Connect Personally
Teacher Messages and Expectations
Home-School Communications and Support

Structure for Success
Grouping Strategies
Cooperation and Belonging
Experiential Learning
Individualized Instruction

Teacher Behaviors and Student Achievement

1. Opportunities to Respond in Class
2. Individual Acknowledgment
3. Wait–Time
4. Physical Closeness/Proximity
5. Touching
6. Praise/Reproof
7. Listening
8. Probing
9. Higher Level Questioning
10. Analytical Feedback/Reasons for Praise

WEB



Who

Where

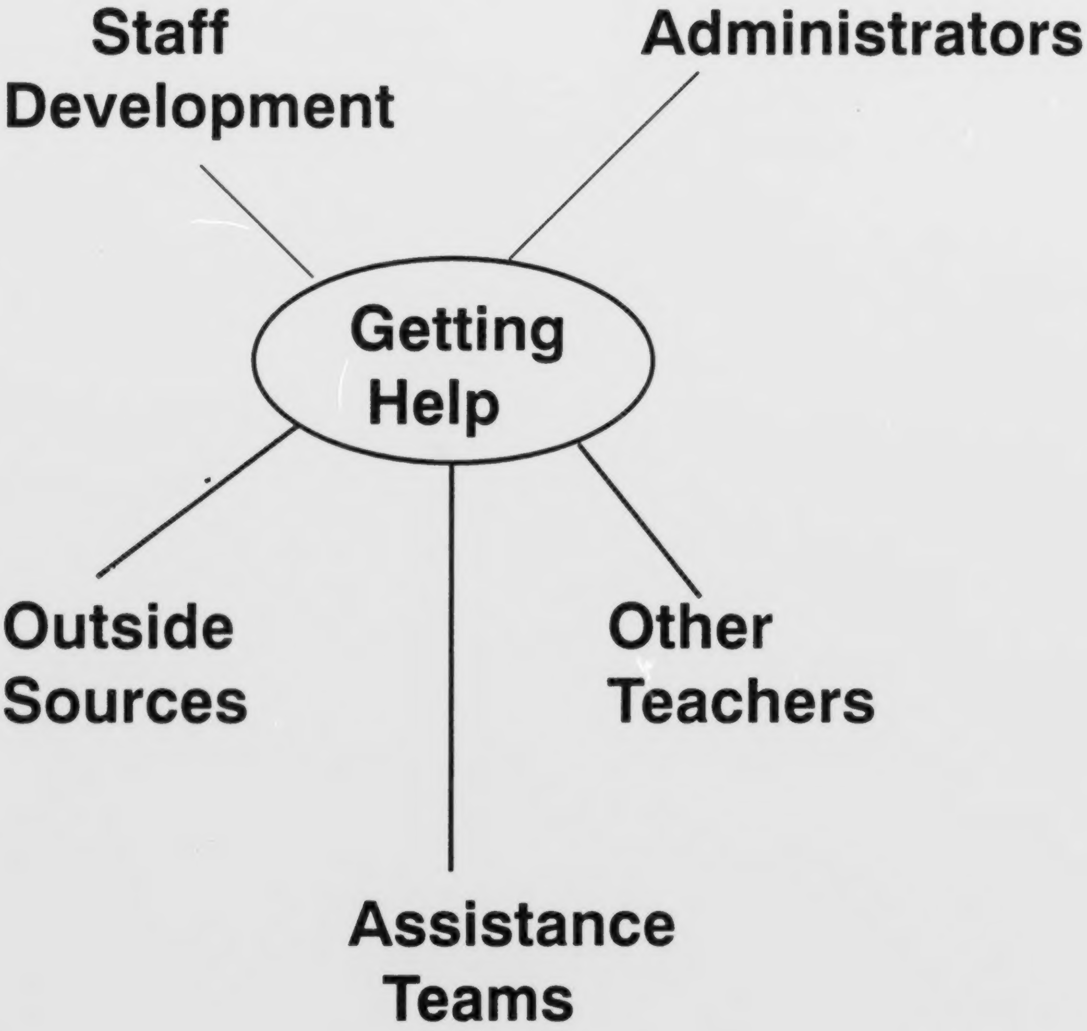
Reaching Marginal Learners

When

What

How

HELP WEB



Staff Development

Administrators

Getting Help

Outside Sources

Assistance Teams

Other Teachers

Accommodating Marginal Learners: School Actions, Needs, and Plans

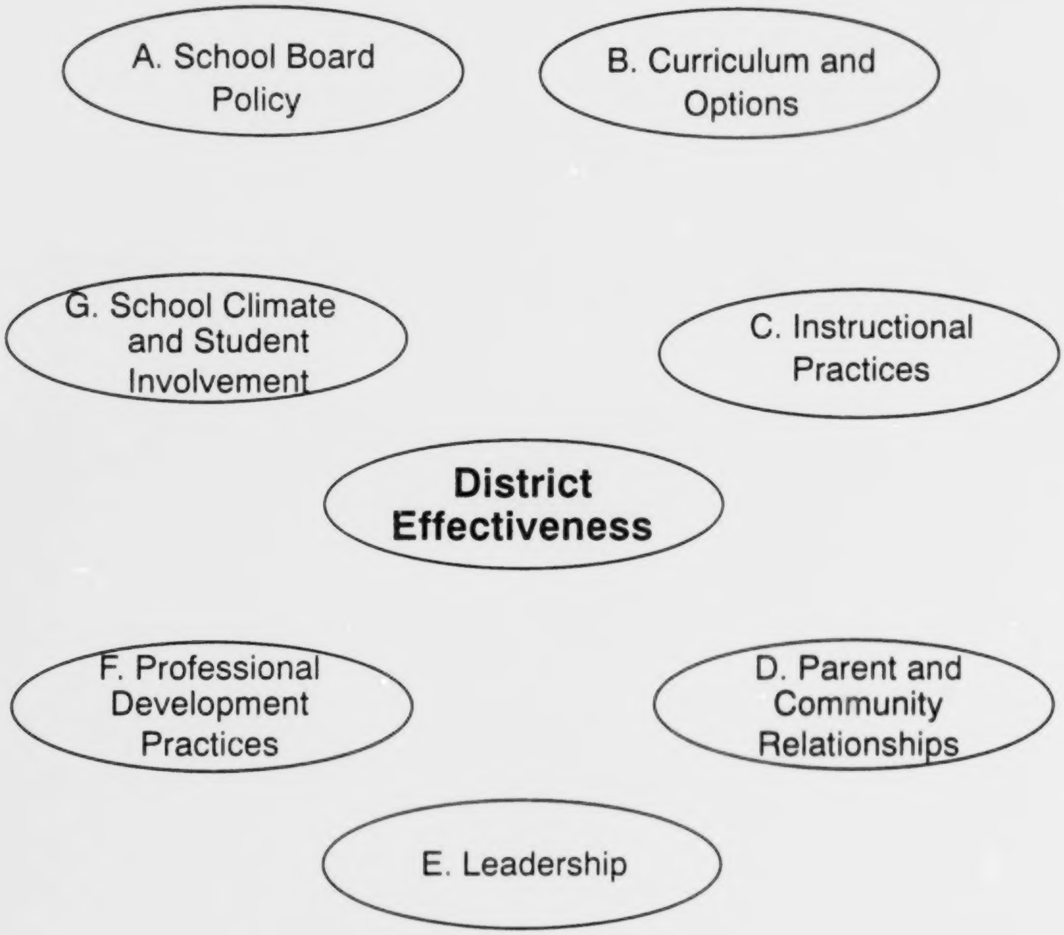
Actions	Needs	Plans

Module 4 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Conduct and analyze a self–assessment of school or district policies and practices that influence learning conditions for marginal students.
2. Develop a district effectiveness profile in regard to policies and programs for marginal learners.
3. Identify local conditions that may hinder achievement for marginal learners.
4. Create a plan of action for meeting the needs of marginal learners in participant schools and/or districts.

Assessing District Policy and Programs –Overview–



A. School Board Policy

B. Curriculum and Options

G. School Climate and Student Involvement

C. Instructional Practices

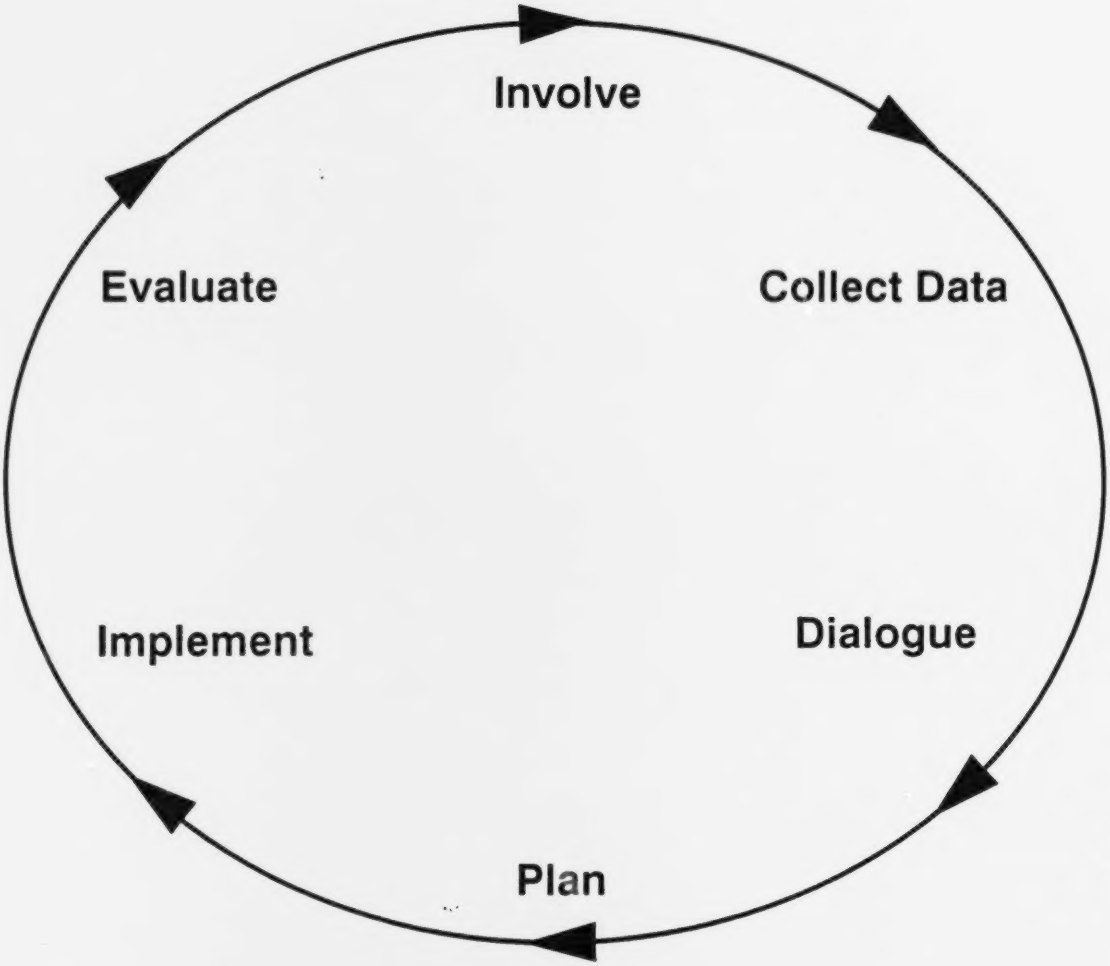
District Effectiveness

F. Professional Development Practices

D. Parent and Community Relationships

E. Leadership

Planning Cycle



Involve

Collect Data

Dialogue

Plan

Implement

Evaluate

*Objective*Action*Time*Resources*Monitoring*Leadership

District Policy Checklist*

- Policies that foster the development of clear images and goals for each building.
- Policies that encourage faculties and building administrators to translate goals into measurable results.
- Policies that encourage teachers and administrators to trust their own initiative and imagination as promising sources of solutions to problems.
- Policies that acknowledge problems and conflict as a normal part of organizational life rather than a pathological condition to be avoided.
- Policies that foster a long term developmental view without paralyzing the ability to respond to needs for immediate action.

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*Adapted from Schlechty, P. C. (1985). District level policies and practices supporting effective school management and classroom instruction, in *Reaching For Excellence: An Effective Schools Sourcebook.* Washington, DC: National Institute of Education.

Marginal Learner Interventions Action Plan

School ______________________________ Date ____________________

District ____________________________________

Goal: To implement interventions that will improve the overall achievement and performance of marginal learners.

Objective	Activities to reach objective	Person(s) responsible	Resources (human/material)	Evaluation (interim & final)	Timeline

We commit to higher levels of learning for *all* students and to this plan of action.

Signed ____

____

Module 5 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Examine constraints to implementing motivational programs and characteristics of effective programs for marginal learners.

2. Generate a list of decisionmaking criteria to be used to select programs to meet the needs of marginal learners.

3. Explore considerations necessary in planning for adapting and adopting programs and practices for marginal learners.

Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners

ADAPTING	Using key features of a program developed elsewhere, but with minor adjustments and accommodations to local constraints and circumstances.
ADOPTING	Using key features of a program developed elsewhere with much the same organization, structure, and sequence as the original model.
PROGRAM	An organized and tested set of practices.
PRACTICES	One or more teacher behaviors or student activities that contribute to learning.
MARGINAL LEARNER	Student with a generally poor record of academic achievement, school social behavior, and/or participation in class and school activities.

Characteristics of Effective Programs for Marginal Learners

Strong leadership

Affective and cognitive emphasis

Flexible

Goal–oriented

Needs–driven

Research–based

Small enrollment

Autonomous

Student–centered

Nontraditional

Experiential

Positive and supportive

Supported by timely and accurate data

Connected to the home

Programs for Marginal Learners: Six Approaches

1. Implementing early identification and prevention practices.

2. Providing compensatory or remedial programs.

3. Designing occupational support-vocationally oriented programs.

4. Offering alternative school programs.

5. Strengthening inservice programs for teachers.

6. Establishing out–of–school youth recovery programs.

Selecting Solutions to Educational Problems: Seven Steps

1. Defining the problem locally
2. Developing criteria for the solution
3. Identifying local resources and constraints
4. Locating outside resources
5. Applying criteria to select solutions
6. Making a decision
7. Transforming a solution into a definable practice

Adapted from Loucks–Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement,* pp. 17–36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

“Ideal” Solutions to Meeting Needs of Marginal Learners

Solution	Rationale

Planning Considerations for Adapting and Adopting Programs for Marginal Learners

1. School improvement activities must address persistent problems and increase the capacity of the organization to attack future ones.

2. School improvement cannot happen unless something observably different occurs between teachers and students.

3. School improvement efforts are more likely to have lasting effects when the solutions to problems are defined as classroom practices so that teachers have clear images of what desired practices look like and what is expected.

Adapted from Loucks–Horsley, S., & Hergert, L. (1985). *An Action Guide to School Improvement*, pp. 17–36. Andover, MA: ASCD/The NETWORK.

Key Elements in Planning for the Implementation of Programs for Marginal Learners

Does this practice generally occur in your school or district?

	Item	Number of "Yes" Responses
1.	Choosing program staff carefully	
2.	Determining existing skills	
3.	Giving the program a fair trial	
4.	Refraining from making changes too early	
5.	Putting in extra time	
6.	Providing both initial and follow–up training	
7.	Providing released time and stipends	
8.	Assigning support roles	
9.	Establishing a realistic timeline	
10.	Evaluating the daily impact of new practices	
11.	Making refinements as you go	
12.	Ensuring that the new practice "sticks"	

Module 6 Objectives

Workshop participants will be able to do the following:

1. Review key concepts of marginal learning.
2. Examine leadership behaviors that impact assistance to marginal learners.
3. Develop a team action plan for leading a local school improvement effort relating to marginal learners.
4. Evaluate a team action plan for implementing activities and changes to assist marginal learners in the school/district.

Profile of a Marginal Learner

Marginal learner status may be predicted in a student who has a *combination* of some of the following factors:

- Child of a single teen parent
- Low birth–weight
- Poverty/distressed neighborhood
- Abuse (psychological, physical, emotional, sexual, or economic)
- Frequent health problems (mental, physical, or emotional)
- Low parental expectations for education/career
- Lack of parental involvement in the student's education
- Retention in one or more grades
- Teen parent
- Academic rank in the bottom quartile
- Probable failure in one or more subjects
- Inadequate credits toward high school graduation
- Exemplary performance in one or two classes
- Inadequate mastery of basic skills
- Frequent attitude and conduct problems in school
- Frequent disengagement from class activities and homework
- Drug, alcohol, or tobacco use in and/or outside of school
- Frequent tardiness or truancy
- Arrest for or involvement in misdemeanor or violent crimes

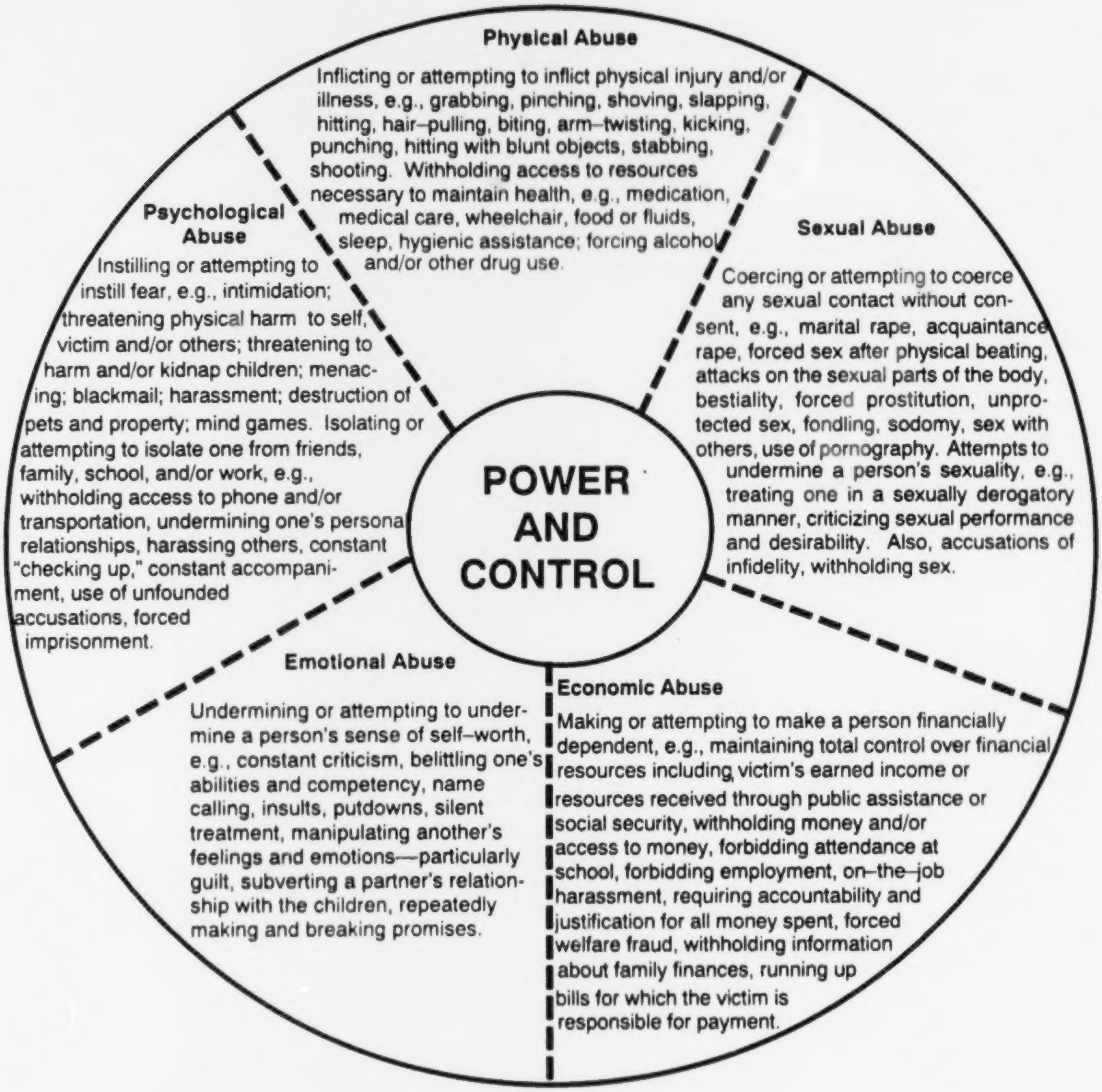
Sources:

Annie E. Casey Foundation. (1994). *Kids Count Data Book.* Greenwich, CT: Author.

New York State Office for Prevention of Domestic Violence. (1990). *A Power and Control Perspective.* NY: Author.

Wehlage, G. G. (1983). *Effective Programs for the Marginal High School Student*, Fastback No. 197. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

A Power and Control Perspective



POWER AND CONTROL

Physical Abuse

Inflicting or attempting to inflict physical injury and/or illness, e.g., grabbing, pinching, shoving, slapping, hitting, hair–pulling, biting, arm–twisting, kicking, punching, hitting with blunt objects, stabbing, shooting. Withholding access to resources necessary to maintain health, e.g., medication, medical care, wheelchair, food or fluids, sleep, hygienic assistance; forcing alcohol and/or other drug use.

Psychological Abuse

Instilling or attempting to instill fear, e.g., intimidation; threatening physical harm to self, victim and/or others; threatening to harm and/or kidnap children; menacing; blackmail; harassment; destruction of pets and property; mind games. Isolating or attempting to isolate one from friends, family, school, and/or work, e.g., withholding access to phone and/or transportation, undermining one's personal relationships, harassing others, constant "checking up," constant accompaniment, use of unfounded accusations, forced imprisonment.

Sexual Abuse

Coercing or attempting to coerce any sexual contact without consent, e.g., marital rape, acquaintance rape, forced sex after physical beating, attacks on the sexual parts of the body, bestiality, forced prostitution, unprotected sex, fondling, sodomy, sex with others, use of pornography. Attempts to undermine a person's sexuality, e.g., treating one in a sexually derogatory manner, criticizing sexual performance and desirability. Also, accusations of infidelity, withholding sex.

Emotional Abuse

Undermining or attempting to undermine a person's sense of self–worth, e.g., constant criticism, belittling one's abilities and competency, name calling, insults, putdowns, silent treatment, manipulating another's feelings and emotions—particularly guilt, subverting a partner's relationship with the children, repeatedly making and breaking promises.

Economic Abuse

Making or attempting to make a person financially dependent, e.g., maintaining total control over financial resources including victim's earned income or resources received through public assistance or social security, withholding money and/or access to money, forbidding attendance at school, forbidding employment, on–the–job harassment, requiring accountability and justification for all money spent, forced welfare fraud, withholding information about family finances, running up bills for which the victim is responsible for payment.

Adapted from *Domestic Abuse Intervention Project*, Duluth, MN. Copywright © 1990 by the New York State Office for the Prevention of Domestic Violence, Rensselaer, NY. Reprinted with permission.

Marginal Learning: Key Concepts

1. Sources of marginal behaviors
2. Common elements among marginal learners
3. Attitudes toward marginal learners
4. Varied programs and practices
5. Characteristics of successful programs
6. Conditions for successful programs
7. Whole child approach
8. Benefits of effective programs—student outcomes
9. Rationale for concern about marginal learners

BLITZ–A–LIST

All group members

1. Suspend judgment.
2. Contribute.
3. Record/accept all responses.
4. Gather information for later decisionmaking.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS: OBSTACLES AND RESOURCES/SUPPORTS

Leadership Roles:

*RESOURCE PROVIDER

*INSTRUCTIONAL COACH

*COMMUNICATOR

*SYMBOLIC PRESENCE

Obstacles	Resources/Supports

Improving Conditions for Marginal Learners: What Leaders Can Do

1. Hold up the ideals.
2. Get the facts out to the public.
3. Promote local discussion.
4. Organize new structures.
5. Better connect community programs.
6. Encourage school/community partnerships.
7. Promote community service opportunities.
8. Ask for the resources.
9. Let people know your appreciation.

The Planning Process

1. Planning time
2. Written plan
3. Mission and rationale
4. Strengths or assets versus weaknesses or roadblocks
5. Resources
6. Shared ownership/awareness activities
7. Instructional delivery variations
8. Experiential program components
9. Evaluation program component

Action Plan Rubric

1. Plans are SPECIFIC and CONCRETE.
2. Plans are stated in MEASURABLE terms.
3. Plans are REALISTIC and ATTAINABLE.
4. Plans address the problem situation and goals in MULTIPLE WAYS.
5. Plans address the problem situation and goals through MULTIPLE AUDIENCES, including:
6. Plans address the problem situation and goals through MULTIPLE FORUMS.
7. Plans are MONITORED and ADJUSTED based on student outcomes.

Rate your action plan on the seven standards, using the following scale:

Exceeds Standards,
Meets Standards, or
Not There Yet

Specific and Concrete ____________________

Measurable ____________________

Realistic and Attainable ____________________

Relevant to the problem in Multiple Ways ____________________

Addresses the problem through Multiple Audiences ____________________

Addresses the problem through Multiple Forums ____________________

Monitored and Adjusted ____________________

Adapted, with permission, from Fleming, D. (1990). *Action Planning: Moving from Vision to Results.* Lunenburg, MA: School Strategies & Options.

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Framework for Leadership

1. Advocate
2. Educate
3. Activate
4. Integrate